

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION OF AFFILIATION AND DOMINANCE
IN CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS:
EXPLORING GENDER DIFFERENCES

By

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For their long-standing support and faith in my abilities, this dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Eileen Herman and Peter Herman.

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INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION OF AFFILIATION AND
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DIFFERENCES

By

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The purpose of this study was to increase the present understanding of gender differences in affiliative and dominant communication between men and women in close relationships. Forty-two heterosexual couples were tested separately and engaged in a videotaped conflictual interaction for 7 1/2 minutes. Communication perceptions of this interaction were then examined in two ways. First, using Interpersonal Process Recall, the couples recorded their intentions, perceptions, and reactions to the interaction in their own words. These recordings were then content-analyzed by trained raters using a standardized personality measure as their guide for coding. Second, couples completed the Interpersonal Adjective Scale-Revised,

created by Wiggins, Trapnell, and Phillips in 1988, which assessed perceptual differences between their own and their partners' communication on affiliative and dominant dimensions. The Personality Attributes Questionnaire designed by Spence and Helmreich in 1978 was also used to determine the gender-role of each participant. It was hypothesized that men and women would perceive their own and their partners' communication from frameworks of dominance and affiliation, respectively. The hypotheses were not supported. Instead, findings indicated that both men and women perceived affiliation to be the primary mode of communication for themselves and their partners. In addition, the predominant gender-role for the women of this sample was feminine. For the men, the predominant gender-role was androgynous. The relationship between participants' gender-role orientation and the study's findings is discussed, and recommendations for future research are made.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The topic of gender differences in communication is gaining attention in both popular and scientific literatures. One often-cited example in the area of gender differences is a book titled The Psychology of Sex Differences (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1978). Maccoby and Jacklin reviewed over 2,000 studies on gender differences and concluded that in a majority of areas, the sexes did not differ significantly. One exception to this was a consistent finding that boys tend to be more aggressive than girls. Maccoby and Jacklin also listed a number of qualities for which it is unclear whether the sexes differed. Among these qualities are anxiety, competitiveness, dominance, compliance, and nurturance. In spite of the passage of nearly 15 years, these questions remain unanswered and continue to be important areas of inquiry for understanding the psychology of gender.

In her popular book You Just Don't Understand, Tannen (1990b) contends that the reason males and females miscommunicate in their relationships is because they communicate from different world views. These world views are representative of the qualities just mentioned.

Specifically, she believes that men communicate from a world view of competition and status (or dominance), whereas women communicate from a world view of affiliation, or nurturance and compliance. The constructs of affiliation and dominance are not new and are reflected in a great deal of past research regarding theories of personality and marital dissatisfaction (Benjamin, 1974; Eidelson, 1983; Eysenck, 1947; Leary, 1957). However, this research has not focused on gender differences. Although there are major theories that postulate gender differences on these dimensions (see Bakan, 1966; Bem, 1974, 1981; Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976; Deaux, 1977; Gilligan, 1982, 1988), these theories are not specifically about communication. If men and women communicate from different world views of status and affiliation, as Tannen contends, then this discrepancy would likely present problems for the communication of couples in close relationships. The purpose of the current study is to increase the present understanding of gender differences in communication between men and women in close relationships.

Statement of the Problem

One problem addressed by the current study is that Maccoby and Jacklin's (1978) review reported studies focused primarily on cognitive/intellectual and behavioral gender differences in young children. The focus of the current study is on dyadic communication

between adult men and women, or more simply, how men and women in close relationships communicate when interacting with one another. This topic has received much attention in the "popular" literature, and recently, there have been calls for research in this area (e.g., Guthrie & Snyder, 1988; Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990; Schultz & Anderson, 1986; Worell, 1988).

One of the problems in examining an interaction between two people is the methodological necessity of a process-oriented approach. In this context, "process-oriented" means simply that ongoing events, in this case, a communication process occurring between two people, is recorded and then directly analyzed as data. This is in contrast to the traditional pencil-and-paper studies that rely solely on questionnaires to generate data, even if the questions do assess aspects of the communication process. Process studies tend to be more time-consuming than the more typical pencil-and-paper studies (Hill, 1982), which may explain why so little process research has been done on gender differences in dyadic communication.

Another term that needs to be defined before turning to the questions posed in this study is the term "construct." Kelly (1963) defined a construct as a dimension consisting of both similarities and contrasts, or to quote Kelly (1963), "Both the similarity and the contrast are inherent in the same construct" (p. 50). An

illustration should help to clarify this concept. Using the constructs of the proposed study as an example, affiliation represents one pole of emotional connectedness, and it can be anchored by adjectives such as warm and agreeable. The other end of the dimension can be operationalized by adjectives such as hostile or cold-hearted. This pair of constructs contain both similarities and contrasts. They are similar, in that both constructs are emotional expressions and both represent the single construct, emotional connectedness. The constructs also contrast with one another.

Hostile/cold-hearted versus warm/agreeable represent opposite poles of emotional connectedness. Similarities and contrasts also exist in the case of the construct, status. Dominance, one polar dimension of status, is similar to its opposite, unassuredness or submission, in that both poles refer to one's status level. Again, dominance and submission are also in contrast, because they represent opposing, albeit complementary, ends of the single dimension, status.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the proposed study is to replicate and clarify current findings on gender differences in communication between men and women in close relationships. More specifically, this study will examine whether men and women perceive their interactions along the dimensions of affiliation and dominance, and

whether gender differences occur along these lines. In addition, this study also serves an exploratory purpose because it will ask couples to discuss their own constructs about their communication. Using the couple's own constructs is exploratory because in a comprehensive search of the literature, the author uncovered no studies of this kind.

The proposed study seeks to improve understanding of gender differences in communication among people in close relationships by asking several questions:

- 1) Using their own constructs, how do men and women perceive a communication process that has taken place between them? This question is perhaps the most basic because it asks not what the differences are, but simply, what are the constructs that men and women use in viewing their interaction. In eliciting constructs, this question will extend previous but scant process research (e.g., Gaelick, Bodenhausen, & Wyer, 1985; Guthrie & Noller, 1988; Guthrie & Snyder, 1988) by asking for participants' naturally occurring perceptions, without first supplying them with a standardized scale. This question also evaluates whether men and women perceive their communication through the constructs of affiliation and dominance. As discussed above, the constructs of affiliation and dominance each represent one of two poles of the dimensions of connectedness (or love) and status, and they are anchored by their polar opposites of

coldheartedness and submission, respectively. Although these constructs have been given various names throughout the literature, affiliation for the love dimension is universally agreed upon (Kiesler, 1983). Dominance on the other hand, has also been called control, autonomy, status, agency, instrumentality, independence, and other terms. Although the author prefers terms such as autonomy or agency for their less pejorative sound, the standardized scale used in this study refers to the construct as dominance. For consistency's sake, hereafter the primary constructs will simply be referred to as affiliation and dominance.

2) Using their own constructs, do men and women have different perceptions about (i.e., use different constructs when referring to) a communication process that has taken place between them? Research studying this question has the potential to replicate and perhaps extend the findings of past process research documenting gender differences (e.g., Guthrie & Snyder, 1988), but uses a more phenomenological method--the couple's expression of their own constructs as they experience them.

3) When using a standardized instrument assessing the dimensions of affiliation and dominance, do men and women have different perceptions about a communication process that has taken place between them? This question has the potential to replicate past research (Gaelick et

al., 1985) that has examined the dimension of affiliation in this context. It also has the potential to extend the research by including the dimension of dominance.

4) Is there any relationship between gender differences in perceptions about couples communication and couples' present level of satisfaction in the relationship? This question has the potential to replicate past research in the area of marital satisfaction and has implications for psychotherapy.

Rationale

Perhaps the most basic question that can be asked about gender differences in communication is whether they exist. The majority of process studies on couples communication have studied marital interaction. This body of research mostly asks the question, "[W]hy do some marriages work while others are such sources of distress?" (Gottman, 1982, p. 108). Surprisingly few studies have used a process approach to determine if gender differences in communication exist. For example, a review of 22 process-oriented studies on interpersonal communication done between 1968 and 1980 (Markman, Notarius, Stephen, & Smith, 1981) found that only four of these studies investigated gender differences, and unfortunately, none of these four looked directly at affiliation or dominance. Far more common are studies that focus understanding of communication differences by dividing samples into happy and unhappy couples. Thus,

the rationale for asking whether gender differences in communication exist is that, despite the popularity of the topic, very little process research in this area has been done.

The shortage of research in this area may be related to several factors. One reason may be that compared to the more economical pencil-and-paper study, process research on any topic is relatively time-consuming. Secondly, published process research on couples communication has been conducted by a relatively small number of researchers, the most prolific and well-recognized being John Gottman (e.g., Gottman, 1979), who concentrated more on marital satisfaction than gender differences.

Fortunately some researchers (e.g., Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990; Schultz & Anderson, 1986; Worell, 1988) have begun to recognize that gender is an important issue, and when gender is analyzed, significant differences often emerge. These authors have made progress toward establishing the existence of gender differences. Two of the most commonly found differences in the literature are that women tend to be more expressive (at least overtly) and that they have more communication skill than men (see Noller, 1980; Noller & Gallois, 1986).

While these studies suggest that some gender differences in communication may exist, they also raise

another question: What causes these differences? This question may be more difficult to answer, but it is certainly worth asking. With few exceptions, the favored method of studying the communication process has been to use trained raters and behavioral coding systems. While this methodology has extended our understanding of where the differences lie, it may not be as helpful in understanding why the differences exist (Guthrie & Snyder, 1988). If, as Tannen (1990b) contends, men and women communicate from different world views, it makes sense to ask the men and women who are doing the communicating how they perceive that communication, which may reveal these hypothesized world view differences.

Several studies (Gottman, 1979; Gottman & Levenson, 1985; Gaelick et al., 1985; Guthrie & Noller, 1988; Guthrie & Snyder, 1988; Markman, 1979, 1981) have taken this approach of asking the participants about their own perceptions of their communication process. However, most of these studies measured marital satisfaction, not gender differences. Clearly, studies of this type that focus on gender are too few in number to be conclusive. Moreover, evaluations of methodologies in this area have concluded that the couple's own perceptions are an important variable to consider in understanding the communication of men and women in close relationships (Glick & Gross, 1975; Guthrie & Snyder, 1988; Spanier, 1976). Finally, from an interpersonal perspective,

participants' perceptions are more important than observers' ratings simply because participants have direct access to their own perceptions; and it is these perceptions that affect subsequent communication.

The rationale for focusing on the dimensions of affiliation and dominance in this study is that they are well-documented personality dimensions in the scientific literature (see Kiesler, 1983, for a review); yet there have been few applications of these dimensions to gender differences in general, and even fewer applications to intimate dyadic communication in particular. Bem and her colleagues (Bem et al., 1976) did extensive work on developing her sex-role socialization theory and labeled the feminine sex-role as expressive, and the masculine sex-role as instrumental. The expressive and instrumental constructs are very similar to the dimensions of affiliation and dominance. Gilligan (1982) also divided the genders along the lines of dominance, or autonomy, and affiliation. She extended Kohlberg's (1973, 1981) work on moral development by including women in her sample and by comparing their moral development to that of men (Kohlberg's samples were all male). Rather than assume the highest level of moral development to be autonomy, Gilligan suggested that women are not less morally developed than men, but rather, their moral values are different than those of men. Gilligan has

argued that it is not autonomy that is the highest priority for women, it is affiliation.

One researcher who applied these dimensions directly to gender differences in communication is Tannen (1990b). Drawing from her own research in sociolinguistics and that of others in psychology, anthropology, sociology, and communication, Tannen built a convincing case supporting her thesis that men and women communicate from different world views and, consequently, miscommunicate. It is important to note, however, that although Tannen discussed her thesis in terms of intimate male-female relationships, much of the research that she cited was based on dyads or groups of participants who were either strangers to one another or were children, oftentimes in same-sex dyads.

Why study gender differences in the realm of intimate relationships? There are three advantages of studying interactions among couples with a communication history rather than strangers who do not have such a history. First, the couple's intimacy serves to intensify communication in a way that does not typically exist between strangers. Huston and Burgess (1979) have suggested that couples communication is characterized by more openness, trust, and affection on the one hand, and also by more criticism and hostility on the other. Second, Gottman (Gottman 1979; Gottman & Porterfield, 1981), who is widely recognized as an expert on marital

communication, has indicated that couples in close relationships, over time, develop their own private message system. This suggests that communication between couples tends to be much richer than communication between strangers. Finally, by studying the communication of couples, as opposed to strangers, the potential for findings being useful and directly applicable to couples therapy is greatly increased.

Therefore, the proposed study makes use of standard personality dimensions that have appeared in the literature for decades. It will transport these dimensions into the domain of gender differences in communication as Tannen has done, and then assess whether any uncovered communication differences exemplify the communication of men and women in close relationships.

One final issue needs to be addressed before turning to the literature review. Why is it necessary to ask the couples about their communication process prior to giving them a standardized scale? While the primary objective of this study is to test gender differences along the dimensions of affiliation and dominance, it is quite possible that men and women conceptualize their communication along different dimensions. The question to be explored here is: What constructs will people naturally use to describe their communication? This aspect of the study is seen as a unique contribution to the present literature because it uses a phenomenological

approach to complement the more traditional method of standardized instrumentation. Giving a standardized instrument first might cause participants to respond unnaturally to construct generation because of priming effects caused by the standardized instrument.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Criteria for Relevant Research

This chapter reviews the relevant literature on gender differences in interpersonal communication, focusing on affiliation and dominance. Ideally, such a review would include only studies using a process-oriented approach to examine gender differences on the affiliative and dominant dimensions of communication among men and women in close relationships. Unfortunately, psychological studies of gender differences in naturally occurring interpersonal communication are scarce (Barnes & Buss, 1985).

Eagly and Wood (1991) offered the "beta bias" as a possible explanation for this scarcity. The "beta bias" phenomenon (Hare-Mustin & Maracek, 1988) is a tendency to ignore or minimize gender differences for fear that they may lead to further oppression of women. Perhaps attesting to this, a comprehensive computerized search (see details below) yielded only two studies (Fineberg & Lowman, 1975; Guthrie & Snyder, 1988) that used a process approach to study gender differences in both affiliation and dominance in couples' communication processes.

Therefore, it was necessary to draw from several different bodies of literature in order to develop and shed light on the primary questions of the current study.

Since the present study is a test of Tannen's (1990b) theory of gender differences in affiliation and dominance, one relevant body of literature came from her book You Just Don't Understand. Although Tannen's field is linguistics and the current study is from a psychological perspective, relevant and interpretable studies cited by Tannen (1990b) are reviewed here. However, methodological and focal differences between psychology and linguistics limited the number of such studies. In addition, even when studies were comparable, they were not always highly relevant, because the studies often examined children or same-sex adult dyads.

Studies were also collected via a computerized literature search of the Psyclit and Sociofile data bases, as well as a search of the Social Science Citation Index on highly relevant studies such as Gaelick et al. (1985) and Wiggins's work on personality assessment (1979, Wiggins et al., 1988). Search terms were gathered from the Tannen literature and from the Thesaurus of Psychological Index Terms (Walker, 1991). The terms "interpersonal communication" and "sex differences" were each combined with the following terms: "sex roles," "dominance," "affiliation," "emotions," "independence," "couples," "marital conflict," "intimacy," "power,"

"conflict," "competition," "cooperation," "love," "Interpersonal Process Recall," "literature review," "meta-analysis," and "close relationships." The main body of literature generated by this strategy was on marital communication. Many of these studies were necessarily excluded because they did not either examine gender differences directly, or measure either affiliation, dominance, or related constructs.

Although the most relevant type of study would include measures of both affiliation and dominance, many studies from the search above focused only on variables related to a single dimension. The relevant studies generated from this computer search were extremely heterogeneous. Many studies focused only on one of the constructs of interest: affiliation, or dominance, or a related construct (e.g., conflict, depending on how it was operationalized). In these cases, judgements had to be made on the adequacy of similarity to the present study.

Additionally, diverse ways of operationalizing affiliation- and dominance-like constructs precluded any simple decision rules for inclusion/exclusion. In general, if affiliation and dominance were operationalized in a way similar to that of the present study (by a personality measure), they were included even if they did not use couples, adults, or mixed-sex dyads, or any communication process within the study. If a

study had many components similar to the present study (e.g., gender differences in couples communication), and it examined a construct similar to, but not identical with dominance or affiliation (e.g., emotional expressiveness) it was also included. If a study had many components similar to the present study but it examined a construct such as communication skill (e.g., encoding and decoding any type of communication), not directly examining affiliativeness or dominance of a communication (see Gottman & Porterfield, 1981; Noller, 1980; Noller & Gallois, 1986), then the study was excluded.

In summary, for inclusion in this review studies must have directly examined gender differences, interpersonal communication, and at least one of the two primary dependent variables (affiliation and dominance). Although research examining only one dependent variable (such as emotional expressiveness) is less relevant to the current study than those studies investigating both, it will be included in this review because the latter are so few in number.

This chapter will first discuss studies of the affiliative or emotional dimension of communication, then review studies examining the dominance or status dimension. Finally, it will present those studies that have investigated gender differences on both dimensions.

The Affiliative or Emotional Dimension

The research of John Gottman and his colleagues (e.g., Robert Levenson, Albert Porterfield, Clifford Notarius) has contributed significantly to the field of marital communication, particularly in the area of emotional expression (for a review, see Gottman, 1979). Much of this research was done in the 1970s and early 1980s, with both successful and unsuccessful subsequent attempts at replication. The first three studies in this section represent preliminary investigations on expressiveness and reciprocation of emotion by Gottman and colleagues. The remaining studies in this section represent more recent investigations, and the findings reported tend to strengthen the earlier findings of Gottman.

Expressiveness and Reciprocity Theory

One widely studied theory of marital communication and emotional expression is known as reciprocity theory or the "quid pro quo" hypothesis. The reciprocity theory states that couples tend to reciprocate those emotions communicated by their partners. In the marital communication literature, emotions are typically classified as either positive (e.g., love), negative (e.g., hostility), or neutral. Differences in emotional expressiveness can also be assessed by using the amount of emotional positivity or negativity as the primary criterion. Classifying and measuring emotion in this way

and the concept of reciprocity is consistent with interpersonal theory (Leary, 1957; Sullivan, 1953) and measures of interpersonal communication (Benjamin, 1974, 1982; Leary, 1957; Wiggins, 1979) because a primary classification in these literatures is along a love-hostility dimension, and the concept of complementary behaviors is very similar to the idea of reciprocity.

Although the valence (positive-negative) dimension of emotions is well accepted, the findings on reciprocity theory are mixed. Some studies report gender differences while others indicate there are no differences. These results are equivocal not only for gender, but for other variables, such as affect valence and couple's satisfaction or dissatisfaction. For example, some studies have shown that reciprocity occurs between couples only when negative affect is communicated (Gaelick et al., 1985; Gottman, 1979; Margolin & Wampold, 1981; Wills, Weiss, & Patterson, 1974). In addition, as some researchers have noted, relationship satisfaction findings on reciprocity may have been obscured by "heretofore . . . overlooked" gender differences in the marital literature (Margolin & Wampold, 1981, p. 564).

Preliminary Investigations

In a review of marital communication studies (Gottman, 1979), the primary question was whether reciprocity of emotion could distinguish between dissatisfied and satisfied couples. Gender differences in

expressiveness and reciprocity were also reported in a few of these studies. In one study (Gottman, Notarius, Markman, Bank, Yoppi, & Rubin, 1976), 30 couples were recruited who classified their relationships as either satisfying or difficult. Using a "talk table," Gottman and his colleagues had the couples code what they felt was the affective impact of the messages they received from their partners. A talk table is a device with buttons that couples manipulate to signal the relative positivity or negativity of a communication sent and the impact of a communication received each time the floor is yielded to one's partner. Although Gottman was able to discriminate between satisfied and dissatisfied couples (by the amount of negative affect reciprocated), no gender differences were found. Males and females were equally likely to reciprocate emotional expression, both positive and negative.

In the talk table study discussed above, Gottman et al. (1976) had their participants judge their own perceptions of affective impact, which was a departure from the more typical method of using independent raters trained in behavioral observation. With the latter method in mind, Gottman, Markman, and Notarius (1977) developed an instrument called the Couples Interaction Scoring System (CISS), which assesses verbal and nonverbal communication, using verbal behavior as the content of the communication and nonverbal behavior as

the affective component of the communication. Using the CISS, Gottman (1979) again found support for reciprocity theory on the basis of its ability to discriminate between happy and unhappy marriages. However, in contrast to Gottman et al. (1976), he also found significant gender differences.

In Gottman's (1979) study, he tested the hypothesis that differences in reciprocity and satisfaction between couples were due to the communication skill level of an individual (as opposed to relationship dysfunction). Partners of 36 married couples listened individually to audiotaped scenarios of both positive and negative couples' interactions, then responded to these scenarios by pretending they were responding to their spouses. Two independent raters coded their responses on the CISS and a main effect of gender emerged, indicating that husbands reciprocated more positive affect than wives.

For this first finding, reciprocity theory held for positive emotions, but more so for men than women. However, with participants' responses to the negative audiotaped scenarios, wives responded with more positive affect than their husbands. These results seem inconsistent with the null findings reported by Gottman et al. (1976), but perhaps the differences are methodological (couples' perceptions of affective impact versus independent observations of communication skill). Results indicated that when positivity or friendliness is

already present in the interaction, men respond in kind. However, when there is conflict or negativity, rather than reciprocating negativity, women became more positive or affiliative, perhaps in an attempt to lessen the conflict. Gottman did not address the discrepancy of these studies; instead, he stated that they are consistent with the marital satisfaction literature. Nevertheless, this discrepancy in findings warrants an explanation that might improve our understanding of gender differences in interpersonal communication.

In a study examining expressivity (Rubin, 1977, cited in Gottman, 1979), the question was whether couples' interactions varied as a function of the topic under discussion. Thirty-eight couples were coached on how to improvise enactment of several conflictual scenarios and a nonconflictual scenario and were then coded by trained raters using the CISS. Rubin found significant gender differences in expressivity for two of the conflictual improvisations and on the nonconflictual task. Wives expressed more negative affect when discussing sex, discussing in-laws, and when engaging in a "fun" task. These findings of differential expressiveness are similar to those of a study to be discussed in the next section (Margolin & Wampold, 1981).

Subsequent studies. Another study on expressiveness used questionnaires and behavioral observations to assess sex differences (Dosser, Balswick, & Halverson, 1983).

Three hundred thirty-one participants responded to how often they expressed each of four emotions (love, hate, sadness, and anger) to a particular target (e.g., parent, female friend, male stranger) on Balswick's 16-item scale. Participants were also presented with situations that required them to report how they would respond using one of the four emotions. Finally, a subset of participants were also given a series of situations that required an expression of one of the four emotions, which they then had to act out how they would respond.

For total expressiveness, females were more emotionally expressive than males across all three approaches (scale, written self-report, and behavioral enactment). In addition, hypotheses for this study predicted that for specific emotions, females would be more expressive of love, hate, and sadness, and males would be more expressive of anger. While females were more expressive of emotions in general and sadness, love, and hate specifically, there were no significant differences on expression of anger.

This study replicated an earlier study done by Balswick and Avertt (1977), which tried to link expressiveness with perceived parental expressiveness and interpersonal orientation (affiliation). Balswick and Avertt found that females were more emotionally expressive of love, hate, and sadness and that these expressions were also associated with degree of parental

expressiveness and interpersonal orientation. Balswick and Avertt also tried to demonstrate that if parental expressiveness and interpersonal orientation were controlled for, gender differences would not exist. This hypothesis was not supported. Gender alone had a substantial effect on amount of emotional expressiveness.

Turning back to the marital communication literature, a study that examined questions similar to Gottman et al.'s (1976) talk table study replicated Gottman's satisfaction findings and also found gender differences on expressiveness (Margolin & Wampold, 1981). Thirty-nine couples were interviewed to find two areas in which each couple conflicted. They were then given 10 minutes to resolve these conflicts. These discussions were videotaped and coded at 30-second intervals using the Marital Interaction Coding System (MICS), (Hops, Wills, Patterson, & Weiss, 1972, cited in Margolin & Wampold, 1981). The MICS allows trained observers to code the ongoing sequential interactions of each speaker and listener, using the following categories: problem solving, verbal positive, nonverbal positive, verbal negative, nonverbal negative, and neutral. Because the MICS includes sequential data, it also enables investigators to determine if reciprocity is occurring.

Sequential analyses indicated that distressed couples evidenced negative reciprocity through two time lags whereas nondistressed couples did not. More

importantly, main effects of gender were found on expressivity, indicating wives were more positive than husbands in two nonverbal categories (Smile/Laugh and a composite of all nonverbal categories), and more negative than husbands on three verbal categories (Complain, Criticize, and Deny Responsibility). Men scored higher than women in two negative categories (Not Tracking and Excuse). Margolin and Wampold (1981) interpreted these gender differences to:

suggest stylistic differences between males and females that heretofore have been overlooked in the behavioral marital literature...within the context of this particular coding system, women appear to exhibit greater emotional expressiveness (e.g., Smile/Laugh, Complain, Criticize), whereas men rely on factual explanations (Excuse) or withdrawal (Not Tracking). (p. 564)

Margolin and Wampold's (1981) results are interesting given that they replicated findings on reciprocity and satisfaction and that they found gender differences relevant to the variables of the present study, expression of affiliation and hostility. In addition, these findings have since been replicated by Hahlweg, Revenstorf, and Schindler (1984), who found that wives self-disclosed and criticized more, while husbands used more justifications.

Notarius and Johnson (1982) tested the hypothesis that wives are more emotionally expressive than husbands, but that husbands are more physiologically reactive to their wives' emotionality. Six couples who fell in the satisfied range of the Locke-Wallace (Locke and Wallace, 1959) inventory of relationship satisfaction were recruited for this study. Couples were given 30 minutes to discuss and work toward a mutually satisfying solution to an issue salient in their relationship. The discussion was videotaped and each individual was hooked up to a galvanic skin response polygraph. Ten segments of this discussion were chosen for analysis, four of which were chosen based on each partner's skin potential responses and two of which were chosen randomly. Transcriptions of these segments were coded using the CISS (Gottman et al., 1977), and reciprocity and expressivity levels of husbands and wives were compared.

On expressivity, wives displayed fewer neutral communications and more negative communications than did their husbands. When wives were the listeners, their nonverbal behaviors were also more negative than their husbands. Using sequential analyses, Notarius and Johnson (1982) found that wives reciprocated both negative and positive emotions expressed by husbands, but husbands reciprocated neither their wives' positive nor negative emotions. These results generally support previous findings of greater emotional expressiveness of

women. Additional support for these results comes from a later study by Notarius and his colleagues that replicated the finding of greater negativity in wives (Notarius, Benson, Sloane, Vanzetti, & Hornyak, 1989).

More recently, a study on negative reciprocity included femininity and masculinity measures which, when coupled with gender, were better predictors than gender alone (Sayers & Baucom, 1991). Sixty married couples seeking therapy engaged in two problem-solving interactions which were then coded on the MICS-III (Weiss & Summers, 1983). The MICS-III is a similar but more refined version of the MICS already discussed. Contrary to Notarius and colleagues, women did not engage in more negative reciprocity than men, and in fact, women terminated a significantly greater number of negative sequences than the men (similar to Gottman, 1979). When femininity was taken into account, however, higher femininity scores for wives were associated with greater levels of negativity in the interaction. For husbands, higher levels of femininity were associated with a decreased tendency to terminate negative interactions relative to their wives. Masculinity was not a relevant factor in the expression of negativity.

These findings seem to obfuscate previous findings on negativity and reciprocity; however, the previous findings represented main effects of gender with satisfaction as an additional variable, meaning that both

distressed and nondistressed wives were found to exhibit more negativity than their husbands, in most cases. Sayers and Baucom (1991) only used distressed couples, and perhaps a negativity effect is not as pronounced for women in distressful relationships, unless other variables are taken into account, such as sex roles. There is clear evidence to indicate that distressed couples engage in more negativity than nondistressed couples (Gottman, 1979), suggesting that gender differences may be minimized because both parties are more negative. Nevertheless, other researchers have felt that studies on gender should also include measures of gender-role. One such study that found similarly qualified results will be discussed later in this review (Leaper, 1987).

A study that directly tested the love or affiliation dimension of personality was done by Gaelick et al. (1985). Gaelick et al. used couples' intentions, reactions, perceived intentions, perceived reactions, and expected reactions to focus on the emotional content of their communication. Twenty-nine heterosexual couples in a "close" relationship (living together for six months or more) responded to a modified version of Leary's (1957) Interpersonal Checklist (ICL) to test the hypothesis that participants would reciprocate their partner's perceived affect. Although Leary's instrument measures two dimensions of interpersonal interaction (love and

dominance), Gaelick et al. only looked at the emotional dimension of love-hostility. Reciprocation of emotion in this study was operationalized as "the correlation between the communicator's intentions to convey an emotion . . . and the recipient's actual reactions" (Gaelick et al., 1985, p. 1253). By asking the couples their own perceptions of the interaction, this study also looked at the reciprocation of perceived emotion, operationalized as "the correlation between a recipient's perception of the communicator's feelings . . . and the recipient's reactions" (Gaelick et al., 1985, p. 1253).

These findings shed light on reciprocity theory. First, reciprocity of perceived emotions occurred between couples. In other words, when the recipients thought their partners were communicating love, they communicated love back. The same was true for hostility. However, when correlations representing the communicator's actual intentions were examined, reciprocity only occurred in the case of hostility. No gender differences emerged for either of these findings. The findings indicate that while people think they are reciprocating both the love and hostility they perceive as emanating from their partners, neither sex is perceiving love accurately and only hostility is reciprocated.

In exploring these relationships further, an interesting gender effect emerged. Women's perceptions of the love conveyed from their partners correlated

negatively with the hostility that men were actually feeling. In other words, women made false positive errors and perceived love even when it was not there. In contrast, men's perceptions of hostility were negatively correlated with the love that women were actually feeling. That is, men made false negative errors and perceived hostility even when women were feeling love or just feeling neutral. The results suggest that women had a positive bias in interpreting their partners' emotions, whereas men had a negative bias. These results are similar to those reported by Gottman (1979), who found that when negativity was present, women exhibited positivity. These results are particularly convincing because there is convergence from two different sources, namely independent observers and the couples' self-observations.

Summary of Emotional Communication

In the existing marital communication literature, women have been shown generally to exhibit more expressiveness than men, and this may be particularly true for negative emotion. Regarding reciprocity, however, although somewhat mixed, studies have reported a tendency for women to respond to conflict, hostility, or general negativity in a positive or, more specifically, loving and affiliative manner. Although more research is needed to support this conclusion, one other study examining both affiliation and dominance has replicated

these findings (White, 1989). It will be discussed in a later section.

Interpersonal Communication of Dominance

The literature to be reviewed in this section comes primarily from two sources: the power strategy literature and research on conversational dominance. First, findings on power strategies will be described. This discussion is followed by description of several studies examining expertness and interruptions as forms of conversational dominance.

Power Strategies

A power strategy is simply a method used to wield power over another for the purpose of getting certain needs met. A popular model of power strategies in intimate relationships was developed by Falbo and Peplau (1980). Their model was primarily derived from open-ended essays written by participants on "how I get [my significant other] to do what I want." Six coders read all essays and created categories of the strategies based on previous work in this area (Falbo, 1977; French & Raven, 1959). This analysis determined that 13 strategies accounted for 98% of the essays written. A statistical technique (multidimensional scaling) was performed on the 13 strategies which rendered them into a two-dimensional solution accounting for 89% of the variance: direct strategies (e.g., asking talking, telling) and indirect strategies (positive and negative

affect, hinting, withdrawing) as one dimension; and interactive strategies (persuasion, bargaining, reasoning, positive affect) and independent strategies (laissez-faire, withdrawing, and telling) as the other dimension.

Because Falbo and Peplau hypothesized that heterosexual relationships might impose sex-role constraints on power strategies not present in homosexual relationships, they compared 100 homosexual and 100 heterosexual college students, evenly divided by gender. Gender differences were found only for heterosexuals, indicating that more often than women, men used bilateral and direct power strategies.

While replicating findings that women tend to use indirect communication more than men (for examples see Tannen, 1990b), Falbo and Peplau's (1980) finding that women used more unilateral (independent) strategies is in contrast to prior results (e.g., Aries, 1976). Falbo and Peplau reasoned that in the context of power differentials between heterosexual men and women, perhaps women resort to unilateral strategies because they do not anticipate compliance the way men do (see also Fishman, 1979, for support of this idea). This conclusion was drawn from findings in their study that people who perceive themselves as having more power than their partner (the men in this study) were more likely to use

bilateral and direct strategies, strategies that would be successful if compliance were expected.

A study that sheds further light on power strategies was done by Aida and Falbo (1991). Using a scale based on Falbo & Peplau's (1980) model, Aida and Falbo did a study to determine how power is used between men and women who are in egalitarian versus traditional marriages. How financial resources were handled in the marriage defined marriage type. In a sample of 42 married couples, there were no differences between the amount of power strategies men and women used. However, women who said they were in traditional marriages (i.e., husband had more financial power) used more power strategies of all types (e.g., negotiating, hinting, withdrawal, etc.) than women who saw themselves in egalitarian marriages. Perhaps in relationships where power is a salient issue for both partners, females must engage in more of a power struggle to get their needs met.

In a test of generalizability, Belk and her colleagues (Belk, Snell, Garcia-Falconi, Hargrove, & Holtzman, 1988) tested the Falbo and Peplau model using women and men from different cultures, Mexico and the United States. With a simple 13-item questionnaire derived from the Falbo and Peplau (1980) study, they found the only significant univariate effects were for women using more stating importance (a direct strategy)

and men using more negative affect (an indirect strategy). Multivariate findings were consistent with Falbo and Peplau (1980). Women from the United States used more unilateral strategies than any of the other three groups, U.S. men, Mexican men, and Mexican women.

While the above findings on power appear on the surface to be inconsistent with the idea that males and females communicate from positions of dominance and affiliation respectively, they may not be. The above studies looked at how power is used to get one's way or to get one's needs met. An assumption made by some researchers (Fishman, 1979; Tannen, 1990b) is that even if women communicate from a framework of affiliation, societal structure is such that they are in a one-down position and sometimes need to struggle to be heard. Consequently, in studies where only a dimension of dominance or power is examined, it may only appear that women are more concerned with the power differential than men. This conclusion, that women must resort to a power struggle, invokes a difference model based not on individual (gender) differences, but based on the underlying social structure. Although an examination of the basis for gender differences is beyond the scope of this study, presumed underlying causes may help in understanding current findings and will be discussed further in a later section.

Conversational Dominance

An examination of conversational dominance as a function of gender and expertise (Leet-Pellegrini, 1979) is an illustration of Tannen's (1990b) hypothesis, that women affiliate and men dominate, although Leet-Pellegrini viewed her findings in terms of power. Seventy pairs (male-male, male-female, and female-female) of unacquainted college students discussed television programming. Expertise was manipulated, with expertise operationalized as partners being equally informed or one partner more informed. "Powerful" communication was defined as talkativeness, interruptions, and overlaps; "powerless" communication was defined as varying forms of assent and supportive work (e.g., using speaker's words in agreement and assisting speaker by completing speaker's intended message). Independent judges used transcripts to make these judgements. In addition, independent judges and participants rated relative expressions of dominance. All judges were blind to sex and expertise level of the participants.

Main effects for gender or expertise were not significant. However, significant interactions for gender and expertise occurred on measures of language features (i.e., powerful versus powerless communication), judges' ratings, and participants ratings of conversational dominance. When men were experts, they were judged to be significantly more controlling and

dominant of the conversation (with both women and men) than female experts. For the language features, expert males talked more than expert females. Female experts used significantly more assent terms than male experts, especially when talking with males. Examination of the means indicated that in the case of expertise, only when female experts were with male nonexperts that the expert was not judged as more in control of the conversation.

Female experts were more reliant on what Leet-Pellegrini has termed "powerless" communication, namely, forms of assent and support. According to the results of this study, men and women seem to handle additional information and their roles as experts quite differently. Leet-Pellegrini has chosen to define these alternate forms of communication as powerful and powerless. A compatible interpretation of this data is that while women are viewed as less powerful than men (even when as experts they should have more power), they may not be trying to communicate from a position of power, particularly since intimacy was not involved as it was in the power strategy studies. As Tannen (1990b) and others have argued, perhaps women in conversation are not as concerned with power or control as they are with support and affiliation.

Another example of conversational dominance comes from a series of studies on interruptions in conversations, which are believed to represent an

exercise of power and control (Esposito, 1979; Natale, Entin, & Jaffe, 1979; West & Zimmerman, 1983; Zimmerman & West, 1975). In these studies, interruptions were defined as "incursions initiated more than two syllables away from the initial or terminal boundary of a [speaker's turn]" (West & Zimmerman, 1983, p. 104). Zimmerman and West (1975) did an early study on same-sex and cross-sex pairs of friends by measuring their conversations unobtrusively in natural settings (i.e., coffee shop) or in private dwellings. They found that of forty-eight interruptions observed, males initiated all but two.

West and Zimmerman (1983) did a follow-up study to see if this same pattern would hold for 5 cross-sex pairs of lower-division university students who were unacquainted. Findings from this study replicated their earlier research. Specifically, the average interruptions for all 5 dyads were 75% male initiated to 25% female initiated (for 28 total interruptions). In all five dyads the males interrupted the females more. These results have also been corroborated using another population of college students (Natale et al., 1979) and with children in mixed-sex pairs (Esposito, 1979). West and Zimmerman also did a check to see if males were "trying to get a word in edgewise." Contrary to this hypothesis, on the average, males interrupted females 12.9 syllables into their turn, while females, when they

did interrupt, interrupted males 25.4 syllables into their turn. West and Zimmerman interpret their results as evidence for the social phenomenon that women are less powerful in this culture.

Communication on Both Dimensions: Affiliation and Dominance

Guthrie and Snyder (1988) cited two studies (Balswick & Avertt, 1977; Dosser et al., 1983) indicating females are more emotionally expressive than males, particularly regarding vulnerability (e.g., love, sadness, depression). The authors explored whether males have a different emotional orientation toward their spouses than females, and if so, how this might affect ability and willingness to learn to express these emotions. Guthrie and Snyder also hypothesized that differences between husbands and wives would fall along the dimensions of agency (or assertion) and communion (or affiliation) respectively.

Guthrie and Snyder measured marital adjustment (using the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Spanier, 1976), and self-evaluations of emotion, using a repertory grid (see Fransella & Bannister, 1977). Ten self-evaluative terms (e.g., "worthwhile") were supplied to the participants and referred to 12 emotional situations (e.g., "laughing and having fun"). These constructs were rated by participants on the extent to which each construct was descriptive of how the participant would feel in the

given emotional situation. Spouses also completed a questionnaire that used the 12 emotional situations as anchors for the question: "...How often you behave in the following ways' in your relationship" (Guthrie & Snyder, 1988, p. 133), again responding on a 6-point scale. A second version of this questionnaire asked spouses to report how much of each type of expressiveness they wanted their partner to display.

In their results, Guthrie and Snyder reported that plot configurations (from a principle components analysis) for both husbands and wives represented the same interpersonal concerns, namely, motivation for affiliation or closeness, and motivation for independence or competence. Guthrie and Snyder felt that the concerns expressed in this study echoed previous descriptions of affiliation and agency or self-assertion interpersonal modes (Bakan, 1966; Deaux, 1977). According to Bakan, communion is indicated by harmony, openness, and cooperation; agency is indicated by isolation and the urge to master.

For husbands, the emotional expressions of sadness and seeking comfort elicit feelings of powerlessness and acceptance. In contrast, talk of their own personal concerns or nervousness conjured up submissiveness and no acceptance in husbands. For wives, powerlessness and acceptance were elicited by personal concerns, apologizing, nervousness, and seeking comfort.

Regarding positive expressions, the distinctions between affiliation and independence blurred somewhat, but men and women continued to interpret many of their emotions differently. For example, for husbands, saying sorry was an expression of independence, while for wives, it was an expression of affiliation. Interestingly, differences in emotional appraisals for husbands and wives cut across all levels of marital adjustment. Regarding participants' self-reports of how expressive they were on these same emotional displays (the questionnaire described above), both gender differences and marital adjustment differences were found. Husbands reported less expressiveness than wives for those emotions that they regard as powerless (e.g, nervousness, sadness, showing anger) and also report less verbal expression of anger. Regarding those emotions that couples wanted their spouses to express, both males and females in the low (poor) adjustment group expressed a desire for behavioral changes that reflected an increase in affiliative behaviors, such as affection, playfulness, and asking for comfort.

To summarize Guthrie and Snyder's (1988) study, the cognitive appraisals that men and women assigned to the same list of expressive displays fell roughly along the lines of independence and affiliation. While this study has the same flaw as any self-report study on gender, namely that males and females may interpret the task

differently, the self-report aspect is precisely what sets this study apart from many marital communication studies. This study suggests why couples differ in their communication or at least in their views of communication: they interpret certain expressions differently. Consequently, it hardly seems coincidental that males are less expressive of those emotions that they believe render them powerless and submissive. As Guthrie and Snyder (1988) note, many males grew up being taught that 'big boys don't cry.'

In an early study on marital adjustment, Fineberg and Lowman (1975) tested couples on affect and status dimensions and found another interesting gender effect on submission. Using a modified version of Leary's circumplex (Terrill & Terrill, 1965), two trained raters coded the interactions of 20 married couples on two primary dimensions: dominance-submission and love-hostility. Fineberg and Lowman found that adjusted husbands were only 4% more submissive than maladjusted husbands, whereas adjusted wives were 20% more submissive than maladjusted wives. For an absolute percentage of submissive responses, adjusted wives were the highest, maladjusted wives were the lowest, and the two husband groups fell in between. Thus, the overall significant finding of more submission for the adjusted group of couples is primarily due to the prevalent difference in wives' submission. In contrast to later behavioral

studies on marital communication, no gender differences in affection were found. Perhaps this is because of differences in coding systems, or the small sample (10 couples).

Socialization or Social Structure

One dynamic familiar to marital communication theorists is the demand/withdraw pattern of conflict. This relationship dynamic is characterized by one partner typically putting some type of emotional demand on their spouse, while the other partner typically withdraws in response. Christensen and Heavey (1990) discuss this dynamic in terms of systems theory, stating that this pattern is a reflection of women's fears of abandonment and rejection, and men's fears of intrusion and engulfment. Gilligan (1982) draws her moral differences thesis from this theory and the differences are thought by Gilligan to result from differential socialization. Christensen and Heavey also recognize a social-structural view of gender, similar to the view discussed in the power strategy literature. The social-structural view of gender posits that men and women behave in different ways based on a society where men hold power and women are struggling for change.

Christensen and Heavey (1990) examined the demand/withdraw dynamic, hypothesizing that wives of 31 married couples would be more demanding (emotional demands, criticisms, complaints), whereas husbands would

be more withdrawing (passive inaction, defensive withdrawal) during conflict-laden communication (see also Christensen, 1987). They also looked at two areas of change, one change wanted by the husband and one change wanted by the wife. The purpose of this was to determine the underlying cause (social structure or socialization) of this demand/withdraw dynamic. Specifically, they hypothesized that if a social structural position is correct, than women would only be demanders when the issue topic was a change they wanted. If the socialization view is correct, than they hypothesized that women would demand regardless of the topic and motivation for change and men would consistently withdraw, because these behaviors would reflect their inherent personality differences.

Christensen and Heavey found that in conflictual patterns, observers (uninformed about design or hypothesis), husbands, and wives all saw a wife-demand/husband-withdraw pattern in the spousal communication. Additionally, when videotaped demand and withdraw behaviors were analyzed separately by independent observers, husbands were significantly more withdrawing than wives, but wives were not significantly more demanding than husbands. That husbands were more withdrawing is similar to Margolin and Wampold (1981). Regarding the social-structure versus socialization hypothesis, results led Christensen and Heavey to

conclude that both forces, social-structure and socialization, were operating to influence male-female communication because the predicted pattern of results that would have indicated one explanation over another did not occur. The reason they reached this conclusion is that even though they obtained a main effect of gender (supporting socialization), they also obtained a significant interaction, indicating a shift in the demand/withdraw pattern, with the demander more likely to be the person who wanted a change. Christensen and Heavey recommend more research on both gender and social structural explanations to determine how the two are related.

In a recent study on marital adjustment, White (1989) reported findings similar to the marital communication literature cited earlier in her study of gender differences in conflict-resolution styles of married couples. White cited literature finding differences in unhappy versus happy couples' resolution of conflicts, namely, that happy couples tended to resolve conflicts in a cooperative or affiliative way, and unhappy couples tended to resolve conflicts in a competitive or coercive way (e.g., Margolin & Wampold, 1981). In an attempt to replicate these findings, White asked 56 couples to engage in a conflict-resolution task which was audiotaped, transcribed, and coded using the Coding Scheme for Interpersonal Conflict (CSIC, Rausch,

Barry, Hertel, & Swain, 1974). The CSIC measures six categories of conflict resolution: three represent affiliative conflict resolution (e.g., introducing compromise, accepting blame, appealing to other's love), two represent coercive conflict resolution (e.g., rejecting or leaving the scene, commanding, attacking), and one represents cognitive (e.g., neutral, suggestions, rational arguments) conflict resolution. White's hypothesis was that conflict resolution style would depend upon satisfaction level (using the MAT) and/or individual differences within couples (i.e., gender).

Regarding gender differences, wives exhibited a higher frequency of coercive speeches than husbands. In addition, dissatisfied husbands were less affiliative and more coercive than satisfied husbands, while dissatisfied wives were more affiliative and also slightly more coercive than satisfied wives. Additionally, husbands of dissatisfied wives were significantly more coercive and less affiliative than husbands of satisfied wives. Conversely, wives of dissatisfied husbands were significantly more affiliative and less coercive than wives of satisfied husbands.

These findings were in direct contrast to White's first hypothesis, that happy and unhappy marriages could be discriminated on the basis of displays of affiliation and coercion respectively. Rather, males and females seemed to respond quite differently to marital problems,

perhaps relying on "back-up behaviors" (Silverstein, personal communication, January 31, 1992) in attempting to resolve conflicts. Unfortunately, in times of trouble, these back-up behaviors (more coerciveness for men and more affiliation for women) were not effective for conflict resolution because couples using these strategies were the most unhappy. These findings for women are similar to those of Gaelick et al. (1985) and Gottman (1979), two studies that found that when negativity was present in an interaction, women responded to their partners with positive emotions. Together, these studies lend support to Tannen's (1990b) affiliation versus dominance theory of gender differences.

The other main finding in this study, that women were more coercive than men regardless of satisfaction level, contrasts with traditional sex-role stereotypes that women do not ordinarily communicate coercively. One weakness of these studies is construct validity, as stated by White: "...the chain of inference from behaviors to label to theory is long." White's coerciveness results are consistent with previous findings that women tend to be more emotionally expressive than men, however, these previous studies viewed coerciveness as "negative" emotion (e.g., Margolin & Wampold, 1981; Notarius & Johnson, 1982; Rubin, 1977, cited in Gottman, 1979). In these studies, a central

issue of construct validity is this: is coercion an expressed emotion which is the polar opposite of affiliation (i.e., hostility)? Or, is coercion an expression of dominance? In White's (1989) study, coerciveness was defined as rejecting, withdrawal, demanding, attacking, and threatening. Arguably, these qualities represent both hostility and dominance, obfuscating interpretations of gender differences in dominance and affiliation. Nevertheless, White interpreted her findings in terms of the two views discussed above: socialization and social structure. Drawing from Gilligan (1982) and systems theory, White argued that men rely on disengagement to handle marital distress, while women move toward enmeshment. She also posited that the dominant social structure may enable men to use power leaving women to use people-pleasing to get their needs met. At any rate, White's study supports the notion that the same interaction or situation can produce very different responses, and perhaps interpretations, among men and women.

Stereotypes or Relationship Dynamics

Drawing again from systems theory, Sullaway and Christensen (1983) used written vignettes to assess dating heterosexual students. Couples read 12 vignettes describing interactions characterized by asymmetrical patterns of behavior, such as, the demand/withdraw pattern described above. Participants, blind to the

gender of the vignette characters, were asked to identify which patterns were indicative of their relationship and who played which roles. Participants also responded to pattern qualities on a forced-choice adjective checklist (15 traits), again indicating who in the relationship was best described by the adjective.

Two out of 15 patterns indicated differences in emotionality: women were viewed as more emotional and expressive than men. Similarly, analyses on the adjective checklist yielded significant gender differences on 9 of the items, with assignments reflecting very traditional sex roles. Specifically, both men and women saw male partners as more powerful, independent, reserved, rational, and relaxed. Women partners were seen by both sexes as more emotional, flirtatious, dependent, and less powerful.

Despite the finding that women endorsed more emotional items on the vignettes, Sullaway and Christensen felt that there were relatively few findings on the vignette patterns, especially in comparison to the adjective checklist. They felt that the small number of pattern findings attested to their belief in minimal gender differences, and that a weakness in the checklist contributed to so many more findings on this measure. Specifically, they said that in the checklist, the opportunities to endorse sex-role stereotypes was higher, and consequently these endorsements were not reflective

of the couple's true relationship dynamics. They base this conclusion on their vignette data, which discriminated happy from unhappy couples using the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), whereas the checklist data failed to do so. This is consistent with their systems position, that using traits alone is insufficient for tapping relationship dynamics, and therefore, underlying patterns must be used. However, during the study, their participants did not engage in communication of their own. For this reason, it is impossible to know whether either of the two methods (vignettes and traits) tapped into actual examples of their communication or stereotypical views of relationships in general.

To address the issue of sex-role stereotypes, a study by White and her colleagues (White, Speisman, Jackson, Bartis, & Costos, 1986) focused on intimacy maturity and examined gender differences among 31 married couples using a revised version of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI, Bem 1974). White et al. revised the BSRI for two reasons: first, to gain equal social desirability for items tapping male and female gender roles, and second, to remove sexist terminology. With this revised version, however, White et al. found no sex differences on communality scores, and only a marginal difference on agency scores ($p < .06$). In light of previous literature, this was surprising. One explanation may be that in revising the communal scale,

White et al. replaced some of the feminine scale items with items from the neutral scale, although these items were felt to be consistent with theoretical meanings of communion. This study lends support to Sullaway and Christensen (1983), who felt that their participants were responding to sex-role stereotypes as opposed to actual relationship dynamics. In both cases, when words were used that were less sex-role stereotypic, fewer endorsements of affiliation and dominance emerged. Like Sullaway and Christensen (1983) however, the couples in this study engaged in no communication among themselves. Therefore, it is impossible to tell if results would be different if couples were given more immediate access to their own communication process.

Well aware that male dominance and female affiliation are sex-role stereotypes, Elizabeth Aries (1982) was curious whether these gender differences could be found in a sample of very intelligent, career-oriented people with similar aspirations. Her participants, from a competitive liberal arts college, were pretested and did not differ on measures of personality and dominance. Aries thus considered the women in her sample to depart from traditional female norms. Groups of 5 or 6 individuals (all male, all female, or mixed) were videotaped in a 40-minute discussion of an ethical dilemma. Trained raters assessed three verbal and two nonverbal measures of stereotypical group behavior for

males and females: verbal acts initiated, attempted answers, reactions (agreement or disagreement), open-body and lean back. Sociolinguists consider these measures indicative of dominance or task-orientation, with the exception of reactions, which are considered social-emotional.

Contrary to previous findings (see Aries, 1976; Heiss, 1962; Leet-Pellegrini, 1979; Strodbeck, James, & Hawkins, 1957; Strodbeck & Mann, 1956), women initiated more interaction than men in the mixed-sex groups. However, regarding content, males and females interacted along traditional instrumental and expressive lines. Males tended to be proactive in their responses (offering opinions, suggestions, and information), while women tended to be reactive, either agreeing or disagreeing with what was being said. Furthermore, on a nonverbal level, Aries held that her results reflected a more submissive position on the part of women because they did not engage in the dominant (lean back, open-body) postures as much as men. Furthermore, in both mixed sex and same-sex groups, men tended toward more open body postures and leaning back relative to women. In contrast, comparing women in mixed-sex groups to women in same-sex groups yielded a significant difference. Women with other women used more dominant postures (openness and leaning back).

In summary, although Aries's women participants tended toward an affiliative position verbally with women and men, their nonverbals changed depending upon whom they were with: dominant with women, and submissive with men. Once again however, these differences in nonverbal communication may not mean the same thing for men as for women. It may be that for women, leaning back and openness is an expression of comfort rather than dominance. Regardless, this study provides another example of differential male-female communication within the same situation.

Although a consistent theme of instrumental and expressive sex differences has emerged across literatures, like the present author, Barnes and Buss (1985) noted that few studies have studied the natural occurrence of interpersonal behavior on instrumental and expressive behaviors. Consequently, findings from these few studies sometimes seem inconsistent with traditional sex-role theories. Barnes and Buss (1985) used Wiggins's (1979) circumplex model, a comprehensive taxonomy of behaviors that assesses male and female interpersonal behaviors. A pilot study by Barnes and Buss yielded 800 behavioral acts mapping onto eight of Wiggins's categories: dominant, calculating, quarrelsome, introverted, submissive, ingenuous, agreeable, and extraverted. Ninety-three married couples assessed

themselves and their spouses on how often they had performed each act in the last three months.

Results indicated that 46 acts were significant for females and 23 for males. Factor analyses of the 69 acts yielded four factors: coercive-manipulative (hostile, critical, demanding, antagonistic), communal (kind, thoughtful considerate, and generous), flashy attire, and initiative (enterprise and agency). The females were higher on coercive-manipulative, communal, and flashy attire acts; the males were higher on initiative acts. Barnes and Buss were surprised that their results reflected both higher levels of communion and coercive-manipulation in females, because this contradicted traditional sex-role stereotypes. However, it replicates studies from the marital communication literature (Margolin & Wampold, 1981; Notarius et al., 1989; Notarius & Johnson, 1982; White, 1989). If one views communality and coercion as a polar construct (affiliation and hostility), it is not surprising at all.

A final study on sex-roles attempted to use both sex and gender-role concept to account for gender differences (Leaper, 1987). The communication styles of seventy-six unacquainted pairs of males and females were evaluated using the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ, Spence & Helmreich, 1978), which assesses agency (independence, competitiveness, superiority) and communion (emotionality, gentleness, helpfulness, warmth). They

engaged in a 5-minute discussion on an issue pertinent to college students. Conversations were transcribed and coded for variables pertinent to agency (e.g., impersonal references and active self-references) and communion (e.g., references to other and indirect statements). Results showed no main effect of gender on conversational style. However, there was a communion by gender interaction: high communion men had less active self-references than low communion men, but high and low communion women did not differ. Leaper concluded that, although gender may be an important predictor of behavior, communication differences may be explained better by including measures of gender-role concepts. Leaper also interpreted these results as suggesting that agency, communion, and the various language forms in this study had different meanings for the sexes--a conclusion that could be drawn from other studies as well (e.g., Aries, 1982; Gaelick et al., 1985; Guthrie & Snyder, 1988).

Observations of Children

Comparing conflict strategies of children at play, several studies examined gender differences among same-sex groups to determine their social organization. Goodwin (1990) used an ethnographic model to study a group of black 4-14 year-old children in a working class neighborhood for a period of 1 1/2 years. This model involved audiotaping naturally-occurring interactions.

Data collection included over 200 hours of transcribed talk, and was analyzed by conversational analysis (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974). In comparing the themes of boys' and girls' disputes, Goodwin noted two similarities: one, the topic was the offenses of someone, and two, at least one of the stories' disputants was present. Despite these similarities, profound differences emerged, as well.

For the boys, someone who was present was portrayed as objectionable, whereas for the girls, those involved who were present were portrayed as exemplary. The purpose for the girls, then, appeared to be to align hearer and teller against an absent third party perhaps in order to bring about a future confrontation. In contrast, the boys dealt with an immediate conflict between teller and recipient. These differences in the target of the dispute also resulted in differences to the counter-arguments offered by the participants. For example, while boys offered direct counters to what was being said, girls offered indirect counters, referring to a past offender. Goodwin interpreted these findings as evidence for different forms of social organization among boys and girls. Whereas boys are operating out of:

an orientation toward social differentiation and principles of hierarchy...girls display a form of organization based on what has been called "exclusiveness", reportedly more characteristic of

American girls' groups than of boys' . . . Girls affirm the organization of their social group through assessing the behavior of absent parties. The alliances they form in the process of discussing others mark who is included and excluded from the social group of the moment, rather than relative rank. (Goodwin, 1990, pp. 54-55).

Both Sheldon (1990) and Sachs (1987) studied videotaped interactions of same-sex triads (2-5 year-old males and females), and in similar fashion, noted a number of gender differences that were interpretable from Gilligan's "different voices" framework. Specifically, boys' disputes lasted much longer than girls. Other discrepancies from girls' play were: (1) shifts in play theme to temporarily resolve disputes; (2) no joint construction of pretend play; (3) opposition to suggestions of play; (4) the use of rules to settle disputes; (5) directive speech; and (6) threats of violence and separation. Sheldon noted that the agenda for the boys was one of opposition, which escalated their conflict. Boys made reports and statements to one another that were informative, but that did not elicit a response. In contrast, girls used directed tag questions (e.g., it's cold, isn't it Marsha?) and mitigating strategies such as clarification and acquiescence, keeping the participants conversationally connected. Gender differences were also found in how play was

concluded: girls redistributed power, and boys ended in a stalemate (Sheldon, 1990). Finally, Sachs noted that 65 percent of the girls' utterances were mitigated, compared to 34 percent for the boys. Other studies of children on interpersonal conflict (Miller, Danaher, & Forbes, 1986) and social influence strategies (Serbin, Sprafkin, Elman, & Doyle, 1982) have reported very similar findings.

Much of what prompted Tannen (1990b) to write her book came from a study she did with same-sex, same-age dyads (Tannen, 1990a). Tannen studied 20-minute videotaped conversations from eight pairs of friends at four different age levels: second grade, sixth grade, tenth grade, and 25-year-olds. In studying conversation, Tannen looked at both interpersonal verbal and nonverbal cues, cues that she said allowed the conversation to be "renegotiated in interaction" (Tannen, 1990a, p. 167). In this case, the cues were physical alignment and topical cohesion. She defined physical alignment as "the ways that speakers position their heads and bodies in relation to each other, including eye gaze" (Tannen, 1990a, p. 168). Topical cohesion was defined as "how speakers introduce and develop topics in relation to their own and others' prior and projected talk" (Tannen, 1990b, p. 168).

What is interesting about Tannen's (1990a) study is that her original intent was not to study gender differences. What she found regarding the genders was so

striking, however, that it prompted her to write her book.

To study the two variables, Tannen used a "cases and interpretations" (Geertz, 1983) approach, rather than a "rules and instances" approach, meaning that her approach was discovery-oriented rather than confirmatory. To study physical alignment, Tannen viewed the videotapes without the audio, studying only nonverbal cues. At all four age levels, females sat closer to one another with their gaze directed at each other's faces. They also touched each other occasionally and sat fairly still. In contrast, males at each age level sat at an angle to each other, gazing not at each other but somewhere else, glancing only occasionally at one another.

Tannen saw these findings as relevant to her affiliation versus dominance hypothesis. While females were affiliative and oriented themselves toward one another, the males did not orient themselves in this manner. Her explanation for this was not that males are disengaged (as systems theorists would view it), but that for males, a "head-on posture and gaze connote combativeness, so breaking that alignment signals and establishes friendly engagement." (Tannen, 1990a, pp. 177-178). Concerning gender differences in physical alignment, females positioned themselves in a way that focused on and maximized their affiliation toward the

other; males positioned themselves in a way that focused on and minimized their awareness of status or dominance.

In analyzing topical cohesion, Tannen noted that the patterns were similar to her nonverbal alignment findings, with females' talk being more tightly focused, and males' talk being more diffuse. For example, at all ages, females had no difficulty finding topics to discuss, and they stuck to a small number of topics. In contrast, with the exception of 10th grade boys, the males had difficulty finding something to talk about and did not stay on a topic for very long. The younger boys talked about a great many topics, and the older pairs, once they found a topic, talked about it on an abstract level. An example of this difficulty came from the 25-year-old men, who had pauses as long as 25 seconds between topics. Regarding content, the males often used the room they were in as a topic, and made occasional references to violence. Females, on the other hand, never referred to violence, rarely talked about their surrounding environment, and instead, expressed much concern about separation from others and avoidance of anger and disagreement. Young females also focused on the concerns of just one person through elaboration and agreement. Young boys talked about their own concerns, and disagreed with the concerns expressed by the other, presumably to downplay them.

Tannen noted that these styles were directly analogous to the joint and parallel styles of physical alignment for females and males, respectively. Tannen provided transcripts and pictures from each of the eight pairs to illustrate her findings.

In light of gender differences on affiliation and dominance, once again, the females were affiliative in their conversational content and able to talk easily with one another. Their primary concern across all ages, was maintaining harmony with those around them. Males seemed to be more focused on status and dominance cues as illustrated by their references to violence and by their disagreement with the problems expressed by their partner. In other words, males and females seemed to interpret expressed concern completely differently. Females viewed expressed concern as something on which they could align with each other. Males seemed to view expressed concern as something that decreased status, and therefore needed to be downplayed.

Considering these interpretations of Tannen and the results of the studies reported in this review, it is worthwhile to further examine gender differences in communication. The following section provides an evaluation of the literature just reviewed and how problems in this literature are addressed by the present study. Then, as a lead-in to the hypotheses of the present study, an overall summary is provided.

Evaluation and Summary of the Reviewed Literature

While it is easy to see weaknesses in a group of fairly heterogeneous studies, the literature just reviewed also has strengths making it possible to draw tentative interpretations and conclusions. This next section first discusses the inherent strengths and weaknesses of the literature just reviewed, and then provides an overall summary.

Strengths

The most outstanding feature in the reviewed literature was the relative consistency of certain findings across widely varying research questions and methods. The most consistent finding in these studies was that women were found to be more expressive than men. This finding was primarily evident in couples communication studies but also occurred in a study of group behavior (Aries, 1982).

Another relatively consistent finding was that men were viewed by both genders as more dominant or powerful than women. This was true in the studies of conversational dominance, as well as in some couples communication studies and studies on children. In addition, this finding came from self-, spouse-, and independent-observer reports, which is evidence of good generalizability. An exception to this general finding came from the power strategy literature, where women and men used overall equal amounts of power strategies, and

women were reported to use more unilateral (independent) strategies than men.

Weaknesses

The greatest difficulty in reviewing this research was deciding which of the diverse methodologies, samples, questions, and fields of inquiry tapped the constructs essential to understanding gender differences in communication of affiliation and dominance. Consequently, the first weakness to be discussed is construct validity. Specifically, the concern is that many studies only indirectly evaluated actual differences in affiliation and dominance and their role in interpersonal communication. This problem took on two different forms. First, many of the studies were not examining affiliation and dominance per se, but rather a slightly different construct, such as power strategies. While it does not seem like a big stretch to interpret power strategies as similar to dominance, operationalization of power strategies are quite different than many other operationalizations of dominance. The primary finding from this literature is that men and women use different types of strategies, with men using a bilateral (cooperative) approach and women using a unilateral (independent) approach. Men and women were also found to use equivalent numbers of power strategies. Does this imply women are more independent and as dominant in their communication than men or vice

versa? Because this was not the question asked, it is impossible to know for sure.

The second problem with construct validity came from studies that did directly examine affiliation and dominance differences in communication. These studies were problematic because operationalizations of these constructs were so widely variable that it is unclear whether they were, indeed, asking the same essential question as the present study.

This problem was most pronounced on the dominance dimension. Some researchers emphasized a control aspect; some emphasized an independence aspect; and worse yet, some emphasized a coercive aspect that contains elements of both dominance and emotional expression. The distinction between dominance and autonomy oftentimes is not made in reviews of studies on interpersonal measurement (e.g., Kiesler, 1983). In the one case when the distinction is made, dominance and autonomy are included as part of a very lengthy instrument in which these two dimensions are viewed as two of many separate personality traits.

The present study addresses this confusion by using a well-validated measure of interpersonal behavior (Wiggins et al., 1988) that assesses adjectives only relating directly to dominance or affiliation. In this way, it is not necessary to make inferences about whether an observed behavior that is not labeled dominance or

affiliation (such as self-references, Leaper, 1987) is really a measure of these constructs or something else, like, narcissism.

A second major problem with the research reviewed in this section is that more than half the studies reported examined differences in only one dimension of communication, affiliation or dominance. While this was consistent with the questions being asked in those studies (i.e., who is more expressive), it was sometimes difficult to interpret the findings from the view of gender differences on both dimensions. A good example of this came from the conversational dominance literature, where Leet-Pellegrini (1979) interpreted her findings in terms of powerful and powerless communication. While it may be that women were in fact more submissive, this view precludes the possibility of a "different voice" interpretation, that would view the women as being more affiliative. The present study addresses this problem by including both dimensions of communication, enabling a more complete assessment of differences, if such differences are found. Further, it can both replicate and extend studies which have included only one or both dimensions.

A final weakness in the research reviewed is the scarcity of studies that take a process approach to studying couples communication. While most of the studies reviewed had participants engage in an

interaction as part of the study, several of these studies were done on children, a group, or strangers. In spite of this, Tannen (1990b) assumed generalizability of findings from studies on various subjects besides couples, making sweeping statements about how adults communicate in intimate relationships. As has been noted, process studies of gender differences in couples communication are few in number, making it difficult to make conclusive interpretations. In addition, some researchers using only written material have suggested (e.g., Sullaway & Christensen, 1983) that more in-depth methods (like examining underlying patterns) are more adequate for tapping relationship dynamics than only measuring traits.

In keeping with the "in-depth" argument, the best way for couples to perceive how they are communicating with one another may involve them engaging in communication and then watching themselves communicate. The present study takes advantage of an innovative method for studying interaction, Interpersonal Process Recall (Elliott, 1986). This method allows an interaction to be slowed down and replayed to the participants, and also allows for a focus on smaller segments of the communication. This method will help to ensure that couples perceive and report on their own particular communication events as they actually happened during the

study, rather than having them rely on memory, which is often fraught with bias and selective retention.

Summary

Regarding relative amounts of emotional or affiliative communication, in all but a few studies women were more expressive than men, both in terms of positive or affiliative communication, and in terms of negative or hostile communication. This was true in studies that examined affiliative or emotional expression alone, as well as in studies that examined both dimensions. This finding was demonstrated in studies using independent, self, and partner observations.

The results were more equivocal regarding how emotion is reciprocated. In some cases no gender differences were found, and some findings directly contrasted one another. In several other cases however, women were more likely to respond to negativity or distress with positivity or affiliation (Gaelick et al., 1985; Gottman, 1979; White, 1989), whereas men responded to negativity either by withdrawing (Christensen and Heavy, 1983) or with more hostile negativity (White, 1989). Studies of children also suggest that girls are much more affiliative in their play. This conclusion is based on analyses of girls' and boys' language use, how they resolved conflicts, and the focus of their conversations.

Regarding findings on dominance and submission, men were generally viewed as more dominant or powerful than women. The one exception to this is the power strategy literature, in which men and women used equal overall amounts of power strategies. There have been several clear demonstrations of the overall greater dominance of men regarding expertise and interruptions. The findings on expertise were strong because there were clear differences on how males and females were viewed by both male and female participants themselves, as well as by independent observers on both types of language used and overall judgements of dominance. Although the effect has been replicated several times, the literature on interruptions is less clear. It is quite possible that men are not trying to dominate the conversation and instead the interruption effect may simply reflect stylistic differences that are unrelated to dominance needs.

Support for male-dominance in communication also comes from studies examining both dimensions. For example, male dominance was found in a vignette study (Sullaway & Christensen 1983), in a study of nonverbal behavior in groups (Aries, 1982), and in several studies of children (Goodwin, 1990; Sheldon, 1990; Sachs, 1987). Consistent with this, women have been found to engage in more submissive behaviors than men (Aries, 1982; Sullaway & Christensen, 1983). However, this finding of female

submissiveness is inconsistent with the expressiveness literature. In the expressiveness studies, women typically have been more expressive of both affiliation and hostility.

An interesting area for future research involves the relationship between dominance needs and marital satisfaction. Female submissiveness was found to be associated with greater marital satisfaction (Fineberg & Lowman, 1975). A possible explanation for this finding comes from a study showing that males attempted to avoid being viewed as submissive (Guthrie & Snyder, 1988). If there is a norm against men appearing submissive, and if the women in marriage prefer not to be submissive, then both members of the couple might continually struggle for dominance, thus causing marital dissatisfaction.

A final finding of interest that emerged in two studies is that men and women may interpret or perceive their own and their spouses communication from different frameworks. Only studies that asked the participants their own perceptions were able to assess this question, but such findings came from Gaelick et al. (1985) and Guthrie and Snyder (1988). For example, Gaelick and her colleagues found that, although males and females were able to perceive accurately their partner's hostility, females tended to perceive their partner's relatively neutral expressions as indications of love, and males perceived their partner's neutral expressions as

indications of hostility. In addition, Guthrie and Snyder (1988) found that men were less expressive of certain emotions (e.g., saying sorry) because they interpreted these emotions as being submissive, whereas the women associated these same emotions with feelings of being accepted by their partner.

Although there seems to be an emerging consistency in the above findings, studies that address how the participants themselves view their own and their partners' communication processes are too scarce to permit drawing any conclusions. However, other types of studies (e.g., children, same-sex dyads) seem to suggest that men tend to communicate from a dominant framework and women from an affiliative framework. From a counseling psychology perspective, it is important to study these differences in couples (as opposed to friends or strangers) because the applicability of findings to couples and family therapy is greatly enhanced.

Restatement of the Purpose

The purpose of the proposed study is to replicate and clarify current findings on gender differences in communication between men and women in close relationships. More specifically, this study will examine whether men and women perceive their interactions along the dimensions of affiliation and dominance, and whether gender differences occur along these lines. In addition, this study also serves an exploratory purpose

because it will ask couples to discuss their own constructs about their communication. Using the couple's own constructs is exploratory because in a comprehensive search of the literature, the author uncovered no studies of this kind.

What follows are the hypotheses of this study. It is hoped that the evaluation of these hypotheses will improve understanding of gender differences in communication among people in close relationships.

Hypotheses

Two sets of hypotheses were formulated for this study. The first set, called the dimension-importance hypotheses, made predictions about the importance of dominance and affiliation regarding participants' communication perceptions. The tests for these predictions were an attempt to directly assess Tannen's (1990b) thesis that males communicate from a dominance-submission framework, (meaning that they may not always communicate dominance for example, but they tend to evaluate communication along the dominance-submission continuum) and females communicate from an affiliation-hostility framework.

The second set of hypotheses, called the dimension-directionality hypotheses, involved predictions about mean scores of male and female participants in response to Wiggins's IAS-R, after viewing videotapes of their communication. Participants were asked about their

perceptions of their own communication, as well as their perceptions of their partners' communication. Hypotheses reflect the following relationships: female's self-perceptions compared to male's self-perceptions; female's other-perceptions compared to male's other-perceptions; female's other-perceptions compared to male's self-perceptions (how both partners perceive the male) and female's self-perceptions compared to male's other-perceptions (how both partners perceive the female).

Participants answered four questions indicating how important the affiliation and dominance items were in expressing their communication views. These four questions were used to evaluate the dimension-importance hypotheses. To evaluate the dimension-directionality hypotheses, the IAS-R (Wiggins et al., 1988) was used to assess the directionality of gender differences (if found) in perceptions of both self and other, along the dimensions of affiliation and dominance. Affiliation is comprised of two subscales, warm-agreeable and cold-hearted. Dominance is comprised of two subscales, assured-dominant and unassured-submissive. To get a single score for each dimension, cold-hearted scores will be subtracted from warm-agreeable scores for affiliation; and unassured-submissive scores will be subtracted from assured-dominant scores for dominance.

Dimension Importance Hypotheses

1. Regarding self-perceptions, for men, the dominance dimension will be more important than the affiliation dimension, and for women, the affiliation dimension will be more important than the dominance dimension.

2. Regarding other-perceptions, for women, the affiliation dimension will be more important than the dominance dimension in describing male communication. For men, the dominance dimension will be more important than the affiliation dimension in describing female communication.

3. Comparing women's self-perception ratings and men's other-perceptions ratings (ratings by both partners of the female's communication), for women, the affiliation dimension will be more important than the dominance dimension in describing their own communication. For men, the dominance dimension will be more important than the affiliation dimension in describing female communication.

4. Comparing men's self-perception ratings and women's other-perceptions ratings (ratings by both partners of the male's communication), for men, the dominance dimension will be more important than the affiliation dimension in rating their own communication. For women, the affiliation dimension will be more

important than the dominance dimension in rating male communication.

Dimension Direction Hypotheses

5. Regarding other-perceptions, a simple effect of gender on dominance is predicted. Specifically, women will rate men's communication as more dominant than men will rate women's communication. Directionality is not predicted for affiliation in this hypothesis or Hypothesis 6 because, according to the literature, some women score high in affiliation while others score low.

6. Comparing women's self-perception ratings and men's other-perception ratings (ratings by both partners on the female's communication), a simple effect of gender on dominance is predicted. Specifically, men will rate women lower on dominance (higher on submission) than women will rate themselves.

Research Questions Regarding Directionality

Two other research questions concern the effect of gender on dominance and affiliation for two remaining relationships. These relationships are stated as questions rather than hypotheses because there are not any communication studies that directly test these relationships that the author is aware of. The first relationship to be considered is women's self-perception ratings and men's self-perception ratings. Specifically, will there be differences between how women rate

themselves on affiliation and dominance compared to how men rate themselves on affiliation and dominance?

The second question concerns the relationship between men's self-perception ratings and women's other-perception ratings (ratings by both partners of the male's communication). Specifically, will there be differences between how women rate men on affiliation and dominance compared to how men rate themselves on affiliation and dominance?

No hypotheses were formulated about the elicited constructs because this is an exploratory part of the study and no studies answering phenomenological questions of this nature have been found in the literature. No hypotheses were formulated for relationship satisfaction either, because this concept is not included in this study as an independent variable. Finally, the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) was included in the experimental packet but no hypotheses were formulated about this measure. The PAQ was included because it is possible that, while males and females in general may not differ along affiliative and dominant lines, these constructs may be representative elements of masculinity and femininity. The PAQ will help to determine if this is indeed the case.

CHAPTER 3 METHODS

Participants

Forty-two heterosexual couples were recruited from introductory psychology classes, and an upper-division abnormal psychology class at the University of Florida. Heterosexual couples were used as opposed to homosexual couples in order to study within-couple gender differences. The term "couple" was defined as people who have dated each other exclusively for at least 6 months and each member of the couple perceiving themselves as a "couple" (Lloyd, 1987).

Couples were asked to participate in a study with the purpose of achieving a better understanding of couples' interaction. The incentive for participation was class extra credit. Additional incentive was offered providing couples with feedback about their relationship based on the data collected.

Overview

Participants were evaluated in dyads (each individual with his or her mate), one dyad at a time, by the experimenter in a Psychology Department laboratory. Participants first filled out a questionnaire about their relationship with background information. They then

engaged in two brief conversations that were videotaped. Next, they viewed this videotape and provided their own perceptions of the second interaction.

Procedure

Couples first completed the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS, Spanier, 1976, 32 items) and a brief demographic questionnaire. Then they engaged in a 90-second discussion about the events of their day as they normally would. The experimenter left the room for this discussion, knocking on the door to signal when the couples should stop their discussion. At the conclusion of the first conversation, couples were given a list of 10 problems common to couples in an intimate relationship (Burggraaff & Sillars, 1987). They were asked first to mutually decide on the topic they would like to discuss for their next conversation. They were told that the topic should be something that they have a difficult time seeing eye to eye on, but not so problematic that it is too threatening to talk about. Item examples are financial concerns and differences in how to spend leisure time. The topic of sex was purposely left out of this list because of the threatening nature of this topic. The couple was told that they will have about 8 minutes for this next discussion, and they can use the first minute or two to pick the topic. The experimenter again left the room and knocked as a signal to stop the conversation. Both conversations were videotaped. This

procedure for videotaping interactions is similar to and based on previous research by Gaelick et al. (1985).

The experimenter then returned to the room for the next portion of data collection, during which participants viewed the videotape of the second conversation, including both discussion of the topic list and the chosen topic itself. Prior to viewing, they were each given the same instructions on how to watch their interaction. After watching the first 2 1/2 minute segment, they were then given a form with directions for eliciting constructs about the interaction. The form said "In a word, a short phrase, or a sentence, indicate the intention behind your communication (or what you meant to say) including emotions, thoughts, or themes." Then participants were asked to write down one word that is opposite to the word or words they just wrote, keeping in mind that the experimenter is interested in finding out what word they feel conveys an opposite meaning, and not necessarily the word a dictionary would indicate. They then recorded their perceptions of their partner and their reactions to their partner in the same format. Each participant was given three of these forms and told that the tape will be stopped at three 2.5 minute intervals to assess the interaction.

When this portion of the study was completed, couples then filled out an instrument containing 64 items (including both self and other items) from four sub-

scales of Wiggins's (1988) Revised Interpersonal Adjective Scale (IAS-R) and four additional items that assessed importance of the dimension in describing their (or their partner's) communication. These four items appeared at the end of each dimension (affiliation-self, dominance-self, affiliation-other, dominance-other). Lastly, couples filled out the PAQ, a measure of masculinity and femininity. Upon completion of this instrument, couples were debriefed and thanked.

Instruments

Interpersonal Adjective Scale-Revised (IAS-R)

The IAS-R is designed to assess personality differences along two basic dimensions: love (affiliation) and status (dominance). To quote the author (Wiggins, 1979), "The Interpersonal Adjective Scales (IAS) were developed within the framework of neo-Sullivanian theory of social cognition which emphasized the exchange of love and status in interpersonal transactions." (Wiggins, Trapnell & Phillips, 1988, p. 517; Carson, 1969; Foa & Foa, 1974). The model for the IAS is a two-dimensional circumplex (Guttman, 1954) operationalized by the dimensions of love and status and has been duplicated in similar fashion by a number of researchers since the original Guttman circumplex (Benjamin, 1974; Kiesler, 1983; LaForge & Suczek, 1955; Lorr & McNair, 1965).

The IAS-R was based on the original IAS of 128 items and was revised for two reasons: to develop a shorter version of the IAS (the full-scale is now 64 items) and to improve the already exceptional structural properties of the IAS (Wiggins, Steiger, & Gaelick, 1981; Wiggins et al., 1988). The current version has 8 scales representing the octants of assured-dominant, arrogant-calculating, cold-hearted, aloof-introverted, unassured-submissive, unassuming-ingenuous, warm-agreeable, and gregarious-extraverted. Because this study is focused on only the affiliation and dominance dimensions, only the four subscales of warm-agreeable, cold-hearted, assured-dominant, and unassured submissive will be used to assess the hypotheses. When assessing participants' elicited constructs, however, all eight subscales will be used because it is not known whether elicited constructs will fall along the dominance and affiliation dimensions or some other dimension. Each subscale of the IAS-R consists of eight items for a total of 32 items. Each item is one adjective with a Likert scale attached, asking the respondent to indicate if the adjective is from extremely inaccurate (0) to extremely accurate (7). Wiggins et al. (1988) suggest that the scale can be used with couples by using a "self" and "other" format for the adjectives. This format will be used in the present study to assess both types of perceptions for each

individual within the couple. This means that they will respond to a total of 64 IAS-R items.

The IAS-R is one of the most reliable interpersonal circumplex instruments and is arguably the most valid for the purposes of the present study (see Kiesler, 1983 for a review of all the major instruments of this type). As evidence of its reliability and validity, Kiesler (1983) used the IAS as initial markers for segment location and definition on his 1982 Interpersonal Circle because of its "superior circumplex structure" (Kiesler, 1983, p. 188). The 1982 Interpersonal Circle (Kiesler, 1983) itself is a very comprehensive instrument allowing the researcher to do all that the IAS-R allows with the additional option of assessing for degree of pathology (which is not relevant to this study). Unfortunately, because of its comprehensiveness, the 1982 Interpersonal Circle contains 350 items.

Regarding internal consistency, Wiggins et al. (1988) presented coefficient alpha values for each of the scales. For the four sub-scales used in this study, the range is from .802 (cold-hearted) to .857 (warm-agreeable). Regarding the circumplex structure of the IAS-R, a principle components analysis of the intercorrelation matrix of IAS-R scales produced two clear factors (Love and Dominance) with eigenvalues of 2.9 and 2.78, and proportional variance accounted for is 36.29 and 34.82. To test the reliability between the two

forms of his scales (short and long), Wiggins et al. also calculated zero-order correlations between comparable scales from the two forms with all of the correlations being .886 or higher except for the unassured-submissive scale (.742). The relatively low correlation on this particular octant reflects a change in emphasis from adjectives representing the lazy-submissive to the unassured-submissive construct, as well as a reclassification of two adjectives into this octant (bashful and shy). The result of this change was a better structural fit with the circumplex model.

Regarding validity, the mathematically structural fit with a circumplex model indicates high construct validity with interpersonal theory because "validation of propositions of complementarity [between constructs] requires segment definitions that match the precise circle mathematics specified originally by LaForge and Suczek (1955) and Leary (1957)." (Kiesler, 1983, p. 187). This speaks to the construct validity of the individual scales as well, because there would not be such complementarity if the constructs representing the scales were not isomorphic. Likewise, for both subscales and the scale as a whole, convergent and discriminant validity is also sound because as Kiesler (1983) notes:

"empirical intercorrelations among the 16 segments should reveal a circumplex ordering (Guttman, 1954) wherein segments of interpersonal behavior adjacent

on the circumference are positively correlated, and segments opposite on the circle are negatively correlated." (p. 187).

In addition, the IAS has been related to a number of relevant constructs and instruments: personality and social individual difference measures (Wiggins & Broughton, 1985); the "big five" dimensions of personality research (McCrae & Costa, 1989; Trapnell & Wiggins, 1990); and preferences in mate selection (Buss & Barnes, 1986).

Items Assessing Importance

Two different types of estimates assessing importance were obtained. The first estimate was based on a set of four items that asked the participants: 1) "How strong are your feelings about the adjectives represented in this set of questions?"; 2) "How important to you are your views expressed by the adjectives in this set of questions?"; 3) "How much do you care about your views expressed by the adjectives this set of questions?"; and 4) "How much do you value the adjectives in these questions in expressing your views about this communication?". The second estimate of importance was obtained by calculating the average distance from the midpoint of each subjects' scores on the items assessing dominance and affiliation. Increasing distance from the midpoint will serve as an indicator of increasing importance. Reliability of the four importance items

will be evaluated by calculating an item-total correlation. Validity of these items cannot be evaluated.

Interpersonal Process Recall

As described by Elliott (1986), IPR works by using videotaped recordings of an interaction to play back to participants. This playback acts as a cue to the participants to relive the experience and retrieve memory traces that are typically lost in the ensuing wealth of information and noise that takes place during an interaction. When the videotape is replayed, participants or researchers stop the tape at critical points and ask the participants to describe their momentary experiences and perceptions of the conversation. IPR tends to be much more powerful than ordinary free recall because it slows down and focuses on smaller pieces, enhancing the recall of experiential aspects of an interaction (Bloom, 1954, cited in Elliott, 1986; Gottman & Levenson, 1985).

Although IPR is most well-known for its use in training and psychotherapy (see for example, Kagan, 1975, cited in Elliott, 1986; Kagan, Krathwol & Miller, 1963), it was originally developed for research purposes by Bloom (1954, as cited by Elliott, 1986) and was much more highly structured than its subsequent adaptation by Kagan and his colleagues. Recently, IPR has again been adapted for research purposes, and is returning to a more

structured format whereby the researcher generally controls when the tape is stopped and what types of questions are asked (see Elliott, 1986 for a thorough review of IPR-related research). More and more, IPR is being recognized as a fruitful method for learning more about the process of psychotherapy and is recommended by a number of researchers prominent in the field of psychotherapy research (Elliott, 1986; Hill, 1982; Horowitz, 1979; Piper, 1988). Although this study is not looking at therapy specifically, it is examining potent interpersonal interaction that could easily take place in therapy and is relevant for doing therapy with couples. For these reasons, IPR seems like an excellent technique to use for getting a closer look at couples' perceptions.

As indicated, researchers have used IPR to answer many different types of questions, with different goals, and in many different formats. There is no one consistent way of using IPR in research, and consequently it is difficult to know definitively the reliability and validity of this technique. Elliott (1986) provides a good review of the many various ways IPR has been used and touches on a number of different methodological issues such as this, but also suggests that more research on the reliability and validity of IPR is needed (see also Elliott and Shapiro, 1988). Validity and reliability data that are most relevant to the present study will be presented next, although the extent to

which these data directly apply to this research is unknown, because these data come from psychotherapy research, not couples research. A computerized literature search for studies using IPR yielded no studies on couples. However, the method used for this study (described in Procedures) is quite similar to methods described by Elliott (1986). In fact the method used in this study integrates Elliott's work with suggestions by Hill (1982).

For this study, constructs were elicited on participants' communication intentions, perceptions of their partners' communication, and reactions to their partner. Relatedly, Elliott (1986) reported validity data for client and/or therapist intentions. Correlations between therapist, observers, and clients yielded values in the .20s to .40s. Overlap between therapist intention variables (e.g., gathering information and being empathic) was small (indicating discriminant validity), and together, Elliott has indicated that these findings demonstrate good construct validity. Elliott also reported predictive validity based on comparisons between perceptions and respondents' perceived impact on the other. For example, clients' perceptions of therapist intentions were the best predictors of helpfulness ratings, with correlations ranging from .30 to .49. He concluded that measures of intentions using both free response (also used in the

present study) and a structured format showed adequate construct and predictive validity. Unfortunately, there is no direct evidence of reliability.

Perhaps the next most relevant report on reliability and validity in this area comes from studies measuring the affective state of clients and therapists.

Unfortunately, this area is less developed. Elliott (1986) reported adequate test-retest reliability (.63) and "high" internal consistency. He also reported "modest" convergent validity for this same study, but does not report specific correlations in either case.

Elliott (1986) also reports reliability and validity data for therapist response quality and significant therapy events. These areas yielded similar estimates of reliability and validity as those just reported. The IPR may be a somewhat "noisy" measure because all reliability coefficients have been in the moderate range. On the other hand, construct and predictive validities have been reported as clearly sufficient.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

The DAS (Spanier, 1976) is a 32-item scale designed as an overall measure of dyadic adjustment, defined as "a process of movement along a continuum which can be evaluated in terms of proximity to good or poor adjustment." (Spanier, 1976, p. 17). The DAS's benefit over other scales of this nature (e.g., Marital Adjustment Test, Locke & Wallace, 1959) is its

applicability not only to married couples but also to others in significant dyadic relationships. It is also a commonly used measure which enhances the comparability of this study to others in the literature. One issue that remains unresolved is whether this scale is a measure of an individual's adjustment to the relationship or a measure of the dyad's adjustment. Although some scale items specifically assess the relationship on the level of the individual, a majority of the questions ask the respondent to assess the relationship as a functioning unit. As many previous researchers have done, the present study will follow Spanier's (1976) recommendation and use an averaged sum of the couples' scores on the DAS. The cutoff point indicating distress in the relationship is a score of 98 (Jacobson, Follette, Revenstorf, Baucom, Hahlweg, & Margolin, 1984).

Spanier (1976) presents both reliability and validity data on the DAS. Regarding validity, three judges were used to assess content validity to determine which items would be included in the final version of the scale. Several criteria, including original definitions of dyadic adjustment (such as the one given above) were used to determine inclusion. As a measure of criterion-related validity, the scale was given to samples of married and divorced persons yielding significant correlations on each of the 32 items with the external criterion of marital status. Further, the total mean

scores of the two groups were significantly different ($p < .001$). Construct validity was assessed through correlations with the Marital Adjustment Test (Locke & Wallace, 1959) yielding correlations of .86 for the married sample and .88 for the divorced sample. Construct validity was also demonstrated via factor analytic procedures, yielding four interrelated components, which correspond to the four subscales of the DAS. Reliability data were computed on the four subscales in addition to the scale as a whole. Participants in this study will be administered the entire scale, which has a Coefficient Alpha of .96.

Personal Attributes Questionnaire

The purpose of the PAQ (Spence & Helmreich, 1978) is to measure the extent to which males and females possess traits representing traditional masculine and feminine gender roles. The short form of the PAQ consists of 24 bipolar-trait descriptions on a five-point scale. These items were drawn from mean ratings of the "typical" male and the "typical" female, as well as mean self-ratings from their college and highschool samples. From this, three scales of socially desirable items were constructed: masculinity (M), femininity (F), and Masculinity-Femininity (M-F). Discriminant validity is evidenced by significantly different scores between males and females on every item as well as for each scale score. The masculinity scale contains instrumental and

agentic characteristics, and the femininity scale contains communal characteristics. Both scales are representative of previous theoretical work by Bakan (1966) and others.

The short form of the PAQ has excellent alternate-forms reliability, correlating .93, .93, and .91 with the long form version of M, F, and M-F respectively. In addition, Chronbach alphas for the short form scales are .85, .82, and .78 for the M, F, and M-F scales, all satisfactory correlations.

Construct Elicitation Measure

To assess whether men's and women's elicited constructs corresponded to the dimensions of affiliation and dominance, the constructs were content analyzed by trained raters who compared the constructs to the adjective scales on Wiggins's (1988) IAS-R. The raters were supplied with a standard dictionary and thesaurus (in cases of no direct match), and were blind to the gender of the participants. Raters scored the constructs along a continuum for each of Wiggins's four dimensions: affiliation, dominance, arrogant-unassuming (arrogant-calculating and unassuming-ingenuous combined), and aloof-gregarious (aloof-introverted and gregarious-extraverted combined). This rating took place for each construct and its opposite, elicited during the Interpersonal Process Recall procedure. For example, a participant indicated she intended to communicate

"anger", and the opposite of that for her, is "happy." First, each rater gave a score for "angry" on the dominance dimension, using each of the items in the dominance-submission scale as examples to help them assess similarity between the elicited construct and the dominance dimension. Because "anger" is not very similar to the dominance-submission construct, raters might assign the construct a "1" for the dominance dimension. The raters then proceeded through the other three dimensions (aloof-gregarious, arrogant-unassuming, coldhearted-warm), assigning a number corresponding to the fit between elicited construct and dimension until ratings were assigned for all four dimensions. Then raters performed the exact same procedure for the elicited opposite, "happy," and so on, for the elicited reaction constructs and the elicited perception constructs.

The author uncovered no examples of the use of construct elicitation in this literature, so this method for eliciting and categorizing constructs was developed by the author. Consequently, only data was collected on inter-rater reliability. Regarding validity, the constructs will be categorized by trained raters using a well-validated measure of interpersonal adjectives (the IAS-R). The degree to which constructs are associated with specific scales of the IAS-R will serve to evaluate construct validity.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Demographics

The current sample ($n = 84$) consisted of 42 men and 42 women. The mean age and class level for participants was approximately 21 years old, and in their junior year in college. Regarding ethnicity, the sample was 82% White/Caucasian, 6% Black/African-American, 1% Native American, and 11% Hispanic. Twenty-one percent of the couples had been dating 1 1/2 to 2 years, 20% had been dating more than 3 years, 18% had been dating 1 to 1 1/2 years, 17% had been dating 2 to 3 years, 16% had been dating 6 to 9 months, and 8% had been dating 9 months to a year. Eighty-two percent of the couples were neither married nor living together, 11% of the couples were living together, and 7% of the couples were married.

Analyses to Test Dimension-Importance Hypotheses

Each of the four hypotheses about relationships between gender and the importance to men and women of the affiliation and dominance dimensions was assessed using two analyses. The first analysis used subjective data generated from four questions asking participants how important the dimension items were in assessing their communication. For this analysis, a 2 (Gender: men,

women) X 2 (Dimension: affiliation, dominance) mixed model ANOVA was performed. <The second analysis used the average distance from the scale-midpoint of each subjects' scores on the items assessing affiliation and dominance as another estimate of dimension importance. This method assumes that extremity of scale scores (e.g., a high dominance score) can serve as an estimate of how important the dimension is to participants' communication perceptions.> For this analysis, a 2 (Gender: men, women) X 2 (Dimension: affiliation, dominance) mixed model ANOVA was performed.

For each of the four dimension-importance hypotheses, results of ANOVAs using responses on the importance questions will first be presented, followed by results of the ANOVAs using extremity scores. In each case, results of the overall Gender X Dimension model will be presented (interaction tests) first. The interaction results are followed by the results of gender on each separate dimension (simple effects). Although these tests were not included in any of the hypotheses, they were conducted as an exploratory analysis. Because there is such a paucity of research in this area, it was felt that these results might yield potentially valuable information for generating future research hypotheses. Given that these analyses are exploratory, interpretations should only be made with caution. Lastly, findings for main effects of gender and dimension

will be presented. Table 1 presents the means, ranges, and standard deviations of all dependent variables involved in the dimension-importance hypotheses, including comparisons for self-perceptions, other-perceptions, perceptions of the man's communication, and perceptions of the women's communication.

Table 1

Means, Ranges, and Standard Deviations for Dimension-Importance Variables

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std Dev
Dominance-Importance				
Self-percept	0	6.25	2.79	1.60
Other-percept	0	7.00	2.74	1.62
Male-percept	0	6.00	2.84	1.63
Female-percept	0	7.00	2.69	1.58
Affiliation-Importance				
Self-percept	0	7.00	2.76	1.78
Other-percept	0	6.00	2.38	1.63
Male-percept	0	7.00	2.50	1.70
Female-percept	0	6.50	2.64	1.73
Dominance-Extremity				
Self-percept	.02	2.75	.80	.58
Other-percept	.03	2.45	.82	.56
Male-percept	.62	3.06	1.46	.81
Female-percept	0	3.38	1.13	.87
Affiliation-Extremity				
Self-percept	.01	2.90	.79	.60
Other-percept	.08	3.19	.80	.60
Male-percept	0	3.50	1.86	.98
Female-percept	.06	3.50	1.97	.83

Hypothesis 1 referred to self-perceptions, and predicted that when rating themselves on their own communication, a significant Gender X Dimension interaction would occur: men would view the dominance dimension as more important^{for the 2 v 3} than the affiliation dimension in describing their own communication, and women would view the affiliation dimension as more important^{for them} than the dominance dimension in describing their own communication.

Hypothesis 1 was not supported because a significant interaction did not emerge for self-perceptions on the importance items ($F [1, 82], = .48, p < .5$). The simple effect of gender on the importance items yielded a nonsignificant trend ($F [1, 82] = 3.57, p < .07$). The means indicated that, in describing their own communication, men tended to rate the dominance adjectives as more important ($M = 3.11$) than did women ($M = 2.46$). The simple effect of gender on affiliation was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = 1.12, p < .3$), as was the dimension main effect ($F [1, 82] = .02, p < .9$) and the gender main effect ($F [1, 82] = 2.69, p < .2$).

The ANOVA on the extremity scores also did not support Hypothesis 1 ($F [1, 82] = .82, p < .4$), nor were there significant simple effects for affiliation ($F [1, 82] = .78, p < .4$) or dominance ($F [1, 82] = .31, p < .6$). However, a main effect of dimension emerged ($F [1, 82] = 21.33, p < .001$). The means indicated that both genders

had higher extremity scores on the affiliation dimension ($M = 1.84$) than the dominance dimension ($M = 1.19$). The main effect of gender was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .11$, $p < .8$).

Hypothesis 2 referred to other-perceptions, and predicted that when rating their partner's communication, a significant Gender X Dimension interaction would occur: men would view the dominance dimension as more important than the affiliation dimension when describing their partners' communication, and women would view the affiliation dimension as more important than the dominance dimension when describing their partners' communication.

Hypothesis 2 was not supported because a significant interaction did not emerge on other-perceptions for the importance items ($F [1, 82] = 1.02$, $p < .4$). A simple effect of gender on the importance items for affiliation yielded a nonsignificant trend ($F [1, 82] = 3.83$, $p < .054$). Inspection of the means indicated that, in describing their partner's communication, men tended to view the affiliation adjectives as more important ($M = 2.72$) than the women viewed these same adjectives ($M = 2.04$). The simple effect for dominance was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = 1.06$, $p < .4$). There was a main effect of dimension for the importance items ($F [1, 82] = 5.2$, $p < .03$). Means indicated that both men and women endorsed the dominance adjectives ($M = 2.74$) as

more important than the affiliation adjectives in describing their partner's communication ($M = 2.38$). The main effect for gender was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = 2.8 \text{ } p < .1$).

The ANOVA on the extremity scores did not support Hypothesis 2, although the interaction was significant ($F [1, 82] = 4.33 \text{ } p < .05$). Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for the Gender X Dimension interaction.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Dimension-Extremity Scores as a Function of Gender

Gender		Dominance	Affiliation
Men	Mean	1.12	1.98
	S.D.	.94	.88
Women	Mean	1.68	1.92
	S.D.	.76	.98

In contrast to what was predicted, the means indicated that women rated men higher on dominance than men rated women, while there was little difference on affiliation ratings. When the interaction was broken down into simple effects, affiliation was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .06 \text{ } p < .9$) while dominance was significant ($F [1, 82] = 9.13 \text{ } p < .005$). As indicated by the

interaction, women rated men higher on dominance ($M = 1.68$) than men rated women (1.12). A main effect of dimension also emerged ($F [1, 82] = 13.91, p < .001$), and the means indicated that both genders had higher extremity scores on the affiliation dimension ($M = 1.94$) than on the dominance dimension ($M = 1.40$). Lastly, a main effect of gender ($F [1, 82] = 4.05, p < .05$) indicated that women had higher extremity scores on both dominance and affiliation ($M = 1.80$), relative to men ($M = 1.54$).

Hypothesis 3 referred to perceptions of only one of the person's communication, in this case, the woman's. This was done by comparing men's other- and women's self-perception ratings, and it was hypothesized that a significant interaction would occur. Specifically, it was predicted that women would view the affiliation dimension as more important than the dominance dimension in describing their own communication, and likewise, men would view the dominance dimension as more important than the affiliation dimension when describing women's communication.

Hypothesis 3 was not supported because no significant interactions emerged for the importance items ($F [1, 82] = 1.10, p < .3$) or for the extremity scores ($F [1, 82] = .01, p < 1.0$). Nor were there significant simple effects for dominance ($F [1, 82] = 1.78, p < .2$) or affiliation ($F [1, 82] = .18, p < .7$) for the

importance items. The main effect for dimension on the importance items was also nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .14, p < .8$) as was the main effect for gender ($F [1, 82] = .86, p < .4$).

For extremity scores simple effects on affiliation ($F [1, 82] = 0.00, p < 1.0$) and dominance ($F [1, 82] = .02, p < .9$) were nonsignificant. A main effect of dimension was significant ($F [1, 82] = 32.39, p < .0001$). In rating women's communication, both men and women had higher extremity scores on affiliation ($M = 1.97$) than dominance ($M = 1.13$). The main effect of gender was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .01, p < 1.0$).

Hypothesis 4 referred to perceptions of only one person's communication, in this case, the man's. This was done by comparing men's self- and women's other-perception ratings. It was predicted that a significant interaction would occur: women would view the affiliation dimension as more important than the dominance dimension in describing the men's communication, and men would view the dominance dimension as more important than the affiliation dimension when describing their own communication.

Hypothesis 4 was not supported because no significant interactions emerged for the importance items ($F [1, 82] = 1.04, p < .4$) or the extremity items ($F [1, 82] = 1.09, p < .3$). However, a simple effect of gender on affiliation emerged for the importance items ($F [1,$

82] = 6.77, $p = .01$). The means indicated that, in describing the man's communication, men value affiliation more ($M = 2.97$) than women do ($M = 2.04$). The simple effect was nonsignificant for dominance on the importance items ($F [1, 82] = 2.47, p < .2$). The main effect of dimension on the importance items was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = 3.18, p < .1$). However, the main effect for gender was significant ($F [1, 82] = 6.03, p < .02$). Means indicated that, in describing themselves, men value both affiliation and dominance more ($M = 2.84$) than women do in describing their partners ($M = 2.30$).

The ANOVA using extremity scores for Hypothesis 4 produced three significant effects. First, a simple effect of gender on dominance emerged ($F [1, 82] = 6.62, p = .01$). Examination of the means indicated that, in describing the man's communication, women had higher extremity scores on dominance ($M = 1.68$) than did men ($M = 1.24$). The simple effect of gender on affiliation was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .36, p < .6$). A main effect of gender emerged ($F [1, 82] = 5.28, p < .05$), indicating that women had higher extremity scores on both affiliation and dominance ($M = 1.80$) than did men ($M = 1.50$). Lastly, a main effect of dimension emerged ($F [1, 82] = 7.16, p < .01$), indicating that both men and women had higher extremity scores on affiliation ($M = 1.86$) than dominance ($M = 1.46$).

Analyses to Test Dimension-Direction Hypotheses

Hypotheses 5 and 6 predicted specific directions for how men and women would score on the dominance dimension. The affiliation dimension was not included in these predictions because neither previous literature nor Tannen's (1990b) book gave an indication as to where men and women might fall on the affiliation-hostility continuum. These hypotheses were assessed by a 2 (Gender: men, women) X 2 (Dimension: affiliation, dominance) mixed-model ANOVA. Affiliation and dominance were treated as within-subjects measures. To ensure that these variables did not correlate (which would preclude finding significant interactions), a series of Pearson correlation coefficients was calculated for affiliation and dominance scores. Correlational results are reported first.

A correlation matrix was produced which shows correlations with pairs of these scales: Self-dominance (how participants rated themselves on the dominance items), self-affiliation (how participants rated themselves on the affiliation items), other-dominance (how participants rated their partner on the dominance items), and other-affiliation (how participants rated their partner on the affiliation items). Of the six possible combinations, two of the variables were correlated significantly. First, other-affiliation correlated significantly with self-affiliation ($r = .62$,

$p < .001$). This indicates that participants rated themselves on affiliation similarly to the way they rated their partners on affiliation. This is not a concern since the literature supports the notion that affiliation is a reciprocal construct, and therefore, affiliation in one person begets affiliation in another. The other significant correlation was between self-affiliation and self-dominance, in the negative direction ($r = -.30$, $p < .01$). This indicates that participants rated themselves similarly on the affiliation and dominance dimensions. Although this effect explains less than 9% of the variance, this correlation is a possible concern because the dimensions were constructed in such a way as to represent orthogonal dimensions. According to Cohen & Cohen (1983), this correlation indicates that to a moderate extent, respondents endorsed dominance and affiliation items as if they were the bipolar opposites of the same construct. Although this correlation is only moderate (as opposed to small or large), it may have affected the findings on these dimensions.

To derive a single score for each dimension, cold-hearted was subtracted from warm-agreeable for affiliation; and unassured-submissive was subtracted from assured-dominant for dominance. This method can result in positive scores (e.g., higher scores on dominance relative to submission), neutral scores (e.g., high on neither dominance nor submission), or negative scores

(e.g., higher on submission than dominance). Table 3 presents means, ranges, and standard deviations of the dependent variables involved in the dimension-direction hypotheses and the research questions (to follow).

Table 3

Means, Ranges, and Standard Deviations for Dimension-Direction Variables

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std Dev
Dominance-Direction				
Self-percept	-1.94	3.31	.98	1.06
Other-percept	-2.56	3.38	.89	1.41
Male-percept	-2.56	3.06	1.12	1.24
Female-percept	-1.94	3.38	.74	1.22
Affiliation-Direction				
Self-percept	-1.62	3.50	1.74	1.16
Other-percept	-2.94	3.50	1.62	1.43
Male-percept	-2.94	3.50	1.57	1.40
Female-percept	-1.56	3.50	1.78	1.19

Hypothesis 5 referred to other-perceptions and stated that women would rate men significantly higher on dominance than men would rate women. To test this hypothesis, a 2 (Gender: men, women) X 2 (Dimension: affiliation, dominance) mixed model ANOVA was performed.

Hypothesis 5 was not supported because a significant simple effect of gender on dominance did not emerge ($F [1, 82] = 2.45, p < .2$), nor was the interaction between gender and dimension significant ($F [1, 82] = 1.69, p < .2$). The simple effect of gender on affiliation was also nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .14, p < .8$). However, there

was a significant main effect of dimension ($F [1, 82] = 10.10, p < .01$). Specifically, in describing their partner's communication, both men and women rated the affiliation dimension higher ($M = 1.62$) than they did the dominance dimension ($M = .89$). The main effect for gender was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .74, p < .4$).

Hypothesis 6 referred to perceptions of only one person's communication, in this case, the woman's. This was done by comparing men's other- and women's self-perception ratings. It was hypothesized that in describing the woman's communication, men would rate women lower on dominance (higher on submission) than women would rate themselves. To test this hypothesis, a 2 (Gender: men, women) X 2 (Dimension: affiliation, dominance) mixed model ANOVA was performed.

Hypothesis 6 was not supported because a significant simple effect of gender on dominance did not emerge ($F [1, 82] = .48, p < .5$). The interaction ($F [1, 82] = 0.00, p < 1.0$) and simple effect of gender on affiliation were also nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = .64, p < .5$). However, again, a significant main effect of dimension was found ($F [1, 82] = 25.23, p < .0001$). Examination of the means indicated that, in describing women's communication, both men and women were higher on the affiliation dimension ($M = 1.78$) than the dominance dimension ($M = .74$). The main effect for gender was nonsignificant ($F [1, 82] = 1.42, p < .3$).

Ancillary Analyses

Research Question One

This question asked: where will participants fall along the affiliation-hostility and dominance-submission continua when comparing men's and women's self-perceptions? A 2 (Gender: men, women) X 2 (Dimension-direction: affiliation-direction, dominance-direction) mixed model ANOVA was performed on this question. The interaction between gender and dimension was not significant ($F [1, 82] = 2.25, p < .2$), nor were any gender effects significant, including a simple effect of dominance ($F [1, 82] = 1.51, p < .3$), affiliation, ($F [1, 82] = 1.40, p < .3$), and a main effect ($F [1, 82] = 0.00, p < 1.0$). However, a significant main effect of dimension emerged ($F [1, 82] = 15.36, p < .0005$). Inspection of the means indicated that in describing their own communication, men and women were higher on the affiliation dimension ($M = 1.74$) than the dominance dimension ($M = 1.48$).

Research Question Two

This question was similar to the first research question, but this time the comparison evaluated men's self-perceptions and women's other-perceptions (how both genders viewed men's communication). The same 2 X 2 mixed model ANOVA also evaluated this second research question on dimension directionality. The interaction between gender and dimension was nonsignificant, ($F [1,$

82] = 2.25, $p < .2$), and all gender effects were nonsignificant, including a simple effect of dominance ($F [1, 82] = 0.00$, $p < 1.0$), affiliation, ($F [1, 82] = .01$, $p < 1.0$), and a main effect ($F [1, 82] = 0.00$, $p < 1.0$). However, a significant main effect of dimension emerged ($F [1, 82] = 4.26$, $p < .05$). Means indicated that, in describing men's communication, once again, both men and women were higher on the affiliation dimension ($M = 1.57$) than the dominance dimension ($M = 1.12$).

Relationship Satisfaction

Data on relationship satisfaction using the DAS (Spanier, 1976) were gathered as a check to ensure that perceptual disagreements were not due to satisfaction levels. In this sample, clinical levels of dissatisfaction were not expected because the sample was not screened for dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction, as measured by the DAS, is thought to exist when couples have a mean score of 98 or less. An examination of individual scores indicated that only three out of 42 couples fell within this dissatisfied range. For this reason, no analyses were performed using the DAS.

Personal Attributes Questionnaire

The PAQ was included as a check to determine if differences in dominance and affiliation could be more adequately explained by gender-role than by gender. Means and T-tests were performed for Masculinity (M), Femininity (F) and Masculinity-Femininity (M-F) to

determine the extent to which the current sample was similar to or different from Spence and Helmreich's (1978) normative samples.

A T-test revealed that the men and women of this sample were significantly different from one another on Masculinity ($T [83] = -4.89, p < .0001$). Men in the current sample ($M = 23.82$) were above the normative mean for the norm sample ($M = 20.41$), while women in the current sample ($M = 20.22$) were below the mean for Spence & Helmreich's (1978) norm sample.

For Femininity, the men and women in the current sample did not differ significantly ($T [83] = 1.18, p < .3$). Examination of the means indicated that while women ($M = 25.56$) were above the normative mean for the overall norm sample ($M = 23.4$), men ($M = 24.90$) were above the normative mean for the overall sample. This finding deviates from Spence and Helmreich's (1978) norm sample, where women were significantly more feminine than men.

Finally, for M-F, men and women were significantly different ($T [83] = -5.80, p < .0001$) as is typical. According to Spence and Helmreich's (1978) classification system, the men in this sample can be classified as Androgynous because they were above the overall norm sample mean on both Masculinity and Femininity. This indicates that on the average, the men in this sample endorsed both socially-desirable female- and socially-desirable male personality characteristics as being

qualities that they possessed. The women in this sample were above the overall norm sample mean on Femininity, and below the mean on Masculinity. Thus, the women in this sample can be appropriately classified as Feminine.

Because of the surprising number of affiliation effects, the finding that the men in this sample were Androgynous, as opposed to Masculine, is interpretable and consistent with the results of this study. Elaboration of how the PAQ illuminates gender findings will be taken up in the discussion section.

Construct Elicitation Measure

Four raters were used to assess participants' constructs on the four dimensions. The Spearman-Brown correlation coefficient for these raters was .72.

Once all the participants' rated scores were derived as described in the Instruments section, a three-way mixed model ANOVA was performed using the following design: 4 (Dimensions: affiliation, dominance, arrogant-unassuming, aloof-gregarious) X 3 (IPR: intentions, perceptions, and reactions) X 2 (Gender: men, women). Because this analysis was exploratory, no hypotheses were made regarding this measure. Results of the three- and two-way interactions will be presented first, followed by main effect findings. Lastly, simple effects of gender on dimension will be presented. Table 4 presents means, ranges, and standard deviations of the variables involved in the qualitative analyses.

Table 4

Means, Ranges, and Standard Deviations for Construct-Elicitation Variables

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std Dev
Intentions				
Dominance	.33	4.08	1.64	.85
Arrogance	0	4.25	.93	.66
Affiliation	.25	4.58	2.37	.93
Aloofness	.25	4.25	1.91	.79
Perceptions				
Dominance	.50	4.33	1.81	.77
Arrogance	0	4.25	1.02	.60
Affiliation	.17	4.50	2.41	.86
Aloofness	.25	3.17	1.82	.60
Reactions				
Dominance	0	3.25	1.36	.74
Arrogance	0	1.75	.69	.41
Affiliation	.75	4.92	2.69	.79
Aloofness	.50	3.42	2.05	.64

The three-way interaction was nonsignificant ($F [1, 83] = .74, p < .7$). However, the two-way interaction between gender and dimension was significant ($F [1, 83] = 4.42, p < .005$). Table 5 presents the results of the Gender X Dimension interaction.

Table 5

Analysis of Variance to Assess Communication Differences on the Four Dimensions as a Function of Gender

Dependent Variable: Dimension			
Source	DF	F-Value	p-value
Gender	1, 83	4.42	.0047

A post-hoc Tukey test revealed that, of all possible paired mean comparisons, 20 were significant. None of the significant differences occurred between genders on a specific dimension. In other words, men were not significantly different from females on any single dimension. However, there were gender differences across different dimensions. Specifically, women were more affiliative than men were dominant; men were more affiliative than women were dominant; women were more affiliative than men were arrogant-unassuming; men were more affiliative than women were arrogant-unassuming; women were more aloof-gregarious than men were dominant; women were more aloof-gregarious than men were arrogant-unassuming; men were more aloof-gregarious than women were arrogant-unassuming; men were more dominant than women were arrogant-unassuming; and finally, women were more dominant than men were arrogant-unassuming. There were also significant comparisons within gender. Of those regarding affiliation and dominance, women were more affiliative than dominant, and men were also more affiliative than dominant. The Gender X Dimension interaction was qualified by a significant main effect of gender, to be discussed next. Table 6 presents means and standard deviations for the Gender X Dimension Interaction.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for Differences in Communication on the Four Dimensions as a Function of Gender

Gender		Dominant	Arrogant	Affiliative	Aloof
Men	Mean	1.68	.94	2.32	1.78
	S.D.	.67	.52	.68	.59
Women	Mean	1.53	.83	2.66	2.07
	S.D.	.42	.32	.61	.47

Note. The possible range on dimension scores is from 0 (not at all like the dimension) to 6 (both the construct and its opposite are an exact match with the dimension).

Regarding main effects, as was true with the quantitative data, there was a main effect of dimension [$F(1, 83) = 122.72, p < .0001$]. A post-hoc Tukey test indicated that both men and women intend, perceive, and react with affiliation ($M = 2.49$) more than any other dimension, including dominance ($M = 1.61$).

Lastly, of 12 possible simple simple effects of gender, three reached significance. Specifically, there was an effect of gender on affiliative intentions ($F[1, 83] = 4.73, p < .05$), such that women intended to communicate more affiliation ($M = 2.58$) than men did ($M = 2.15$). There was also an effect of gender on aloof-gregarious perceptions ($F[1, 83] = 5.51, p < .05$), such that women perceived more aloof-gregarious messages from their partners ($M = 1.96$) than did men ($M = 1.67$).

Lastly, there was an effect of gender on aloof-gregarious reactions ($F [1, 83] = 7.8, p < .01$), such that women had more aloof-gregarious reactions ($M = 2.24$) than did men ($M = 1.86$).

Summary of Results

The prediction for the importance analyses was that an interaction would be obtained, supporting the notion that males and females communicate from separate frameworks and that furthermore, they do not transcend these frameworks by perceiving a different style in their partners' communication. These predictions were not supported. In fact, the most consistent finding that emerged from the importance analyses was an unexpected main effect of affiliation. This finding occurred across comparisons of self-perceptions, other-perceptions, perceptions of the man's communication, and perceptions of the woman's communication. This effect was replicated by the qualitative data analysis as well as by the directional hypotheses tests.

Although only two significant interactions were found in all of the analyses, one of these interactions came from other-perceptions, and it was replicated by a simple effect finding. Specifically, females perceived dominance to be more accurate in describing men's communication than men did in describing either themselves (the simple effect) or their partners (the

interaction). How this finding relates to previous research will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Finally, relative to Spence and Helmreich's (1978) norm sample, the men in this study were atypically androgynous, as evidenced by their PAQ scores. As discussed in Chapter 5, this finding may shed light on the affiliation main effect results.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

Overview

This chapter discusses relevant findings (and nonfindings) in light of the current predictions and previous research. The first part of this chapter is arranged in the same order as the results section: discussed first will be the importance hypotheses, followed by a summary of these findings. Next, the directional hypotheses and research questions are discussed. A section on ancillary analyses follows, which reviews the results of gender-role findings (PAQ), relationship satisfaction, and the Construct Elicitation Measure. Following the discussion of all results, limitations of the current study are provided. Lastly, recommendations for research are given, and implications for psychotherapy are suggested.

Importance Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 referred to self-perceptions, and stated that while men would rate dominance adjectives more highly in describing their own communication, women would rate affiliation adjectives more highly in describing their own communication. The interaction was not significant for either the importance questions or

the extremity scores. However, a trend approaching significance was found on the importance questions. The trend indicated that, in describing their own communication, men rated dominance adjectives as more important than did women. Although this effect was only a trend and it came from an exploratory analysis, it is consistent with findings from previous literature utilizing both behavioral observations (e.g., conversational dominance, Esposito, 1979; Leet-Pellegrini, 1979; West & Zimmerman, 1983) and self-report data (Barnes & Buss, 1985; Sullaway & Christensen, 1983). This effect was not obtained using extremity scores. That is, while men responded differently than women to the importance questions, there were no gender differences on how far their ratings were from the scale midpoints, when rating actual scale items.

The prediction for Hypothesis 1, that women would rate the affiliation adjectives as more important for describing their own communication, was not supported for the importance questions or the extremity scores. The high percentage of androgynous men in this study may have partly accounted for this nonsignificant result. The Spence and Helmreich (1978) classification places the men in this sample in the androgynous category, meaning that they are above the norm for both masculinity and femininity. In fact, all but six of 42 men were above the male norm. In contrast, as a whole, the women in

this study would be classified by Spence and Helmreich's (1978) system as feminine. Possible reasons why the men in this sample were so uniformly androgynous will be discussed in a later section.

Androgyny may also explain why a main effect of dimension was obtained for Hypothesis 1. Both men and women had higher extremity scores on the affiliation dimension than on the dominance dimension. This means that the affiliation dimension, on the whole, was more accurate for describing their self-perceptions than was the dominance dimension. This is an interpretable, albeit unexpected, finding because both men and women in this sample were high on femininity. This finding possibly suggests that, while men may view dominance as more important than women do for self-perceptions (the reported trend), this dimension does not seem to be the most important one to their communication. This is because the main effect for self-perceptions indicated that both genders together saw affiliation as a more accurate descriptor of their communication than dominance.

Given the androgynous men and feminine women of this sample, this finding is consistent with previous literature that has included gender role measures. Specifically, Leaper (1987) found that men who were high in femininity (as in the current sample) had a more "communal" conversational style than men who were not

high in femininity. Also, Sayers & Baucom (1991) found that higher degrees of femininity in men and women were associated with greater expressivity. Expressivity is very similar to the affiliation dimension because it includes both warm and loving emotional expression as well as hostility. Love and hostility are the polar opposites of affiliation. In this sample, men were high on masculinity and femininity, so it is not surprising that they had a tendency to endorse both dominance (the importance trend) and affiliation adjectives (the extremity scores). It is also not surprising that the highly feminine women endorsed affiliation adjectives. Thus, given the gender-role orientation of this sample, the unexpected main effect of gender favoring affiliation for self-perceptions seems consistent with previous literature.

Hypothesis 2 referred to other-perceptions and stated that men would be higher on the dominance dimension in describing women, while women would be higher on the affiliation dimension in describing men. The hypothesis was not supported. However, unexpected but interesting findings emerged both for affiliation using the importance questions, and for dominance using the extremity scores. Specifically, for other-perceptions on the importance questions, rather than rating dominance as more important, men had a tendency to rate affiliation as more important than did women.

Similarly, for extremity scores, in rating men, women were more extreme on the dominance dimension than men were in rating women. The extremity finding emerged as an interaction, but the simple effects indicated that the difference lay in dominance scores. These findings are particularly interesting in light of Tannen's (1990b) implications regarding gender miscommunication. Tannen stated that, because men communicate from a framework of dominance and women communicate from a framework of affiliation, men and women misunderstand each other and consequently miscommunicate. This implies that men and women are unaware that they communicate from different viewpoints, however, this assumption was not tested by Tannen. Yet, in describing their partners, the males in this study had a tendency to rate affiliation as more important than the women rated it. Also, the women rated their partners' communication as more dominant than the men rated their partners' communication. These findings indicate that, men may, indeed, see their partners as affiliative (as evidenced by their importance ratings), and women see their partners as dominant (as evidenced by their extremity scores).

Two findings seem to contradict the conclusion that males and females transcend their own hypothesized communication styles in evaluating their partners. A main effect of dimension was obtained favoring dominance on the importance questions. This finding indicated that

both men and women perceived dominance as more important than affiliation in describing their partner's communication. A main effect of dimension was also obtained on the extremity scores, but oddly, the extremity main effect favored affiliation. If men and women are truly perceiving each other as dominant and affiliative, respectively, than neither main effect should have been found. The dominance main effect is suspect, not only because the main effects were in opposite directions, but also because a main effect of dimension favoring affiliation was found on all nine analyses (six hypotheses two research questions, and the qualitative data). The affiliation main effect indicates that, even if men and women do perceive each other slightly differently, the predominant dimension among both genders is affiliation.

Regarding extremity scores, although women rated men higher on the dominance dimension than men rated women, the gender main effect for other-perceptions indicated that women were more extreme than men on both dimensions. This finding is interpretable in light of the large proportion of androgynous men in this sample. While women perceive dominance as more descriptive of their partners than men do of their partners, women also perceive both dimensions as descriptive of the man's communication. This could mean that men may be exhibiting both dominant and affiliative behaviors in

their communication, and women are able to perceive both qualities.

Although Tannen's (1990b) book prompted specification of Hypothesis 2 in the direction of men perceiving dominance and females perceiving affiliation, this study yielded two effects that were in a different direction. While this appears to be an important finding, no other studies were uncovered that directly tested couples' other-perceptions on scales of dominance and affiliation, so apparently, there is no literature that can either support or contradict these findings. In addition, although one of these effects was obtained from the hypothesized interaction, the other was obtained from an exploratory analyses. Further research on other-perceptions on these dimensions is needed to assess the replicability of these findings.

Hypothesis 3 referred to perceptions about the woman's communication, and stated that men would rate women higher on dominance, and women would rate themselves higher on affiliation. Hypothesis 3 was not supported by either the importance questions or extremity scores. Again, a main effect of dimension occurred for the extremity scores, indicating that both men and women viewed the affiliation dimension as a better descriptor of the woman's communication than the dominance dimension. This finding, again, is interpretable given the gender-role make-up of this sample. Since this

comparison only evaluates the woman's communication, more support for this finding comes from previous research that has found women to be more affiliative and/or emotional than men (e.g., Balswick & Avertt, 1977; Dosser et al., 1983; Margolin & Wampold, 1981; Notarius & Johnson, 1982; Notarius et al., 1989). The information added by this study is, again, how couples rate their partners, in this case, how men rated women's communication. In the current findings, men agreed with women that women are more accurately described by affiliation adjectives than dominance adjectives.

Hypothesis 4 referred to perceptions about the man's communication, and stated that women would rate men higher on affiliation, while men would rate themselves higher on dominance. Hypothesis 4 was not supported by the importance questions because the interaction was nonsignificant. Interestingly however, a simple effect of gender emerged for the importance questions, indicating that for men's communication, men value affiliation more than women do. This seems to indicate that men see themselves as more affiliative than women see their partners. The findings on the extremity scores somewhat support the conclusion that men and women are in conflict about how they view men's communication, and they are identical to the extremity findings for Hypothesis 2, where women were also rating men. Specifically, in describing men's communication, women

perceived dominance as more accurately descriptive of men's communication than men did. However, this effect was driven by a main effect that found women had more extreme responses for both dominance and affiliation than did men. Similar to the findings for other-perceptions (Hypothesis 2), it may be that men are exhibiting both affiliative and dominant qualities in their communication, although the main effect indicates that affiliation is the predominant dimension. Although women perceived both these qualities, men were perhaps more in touch with their affiliative nature than women were.

Although caution is needed in making interpretations from the simple effect findings, the possibility that, men do not see themselves as being as dominant as women do, is interesting. Again, a search of this literature revealed no research that makes comparisons between other- and self-perceptions in couples communication, so more research is needed before the reliability of this finding can be assessed. However, some studies have led researchers to conclude that women are more skilled at decoding communication (Gottman & Porterfield, 1981; Noller, 1980; Noller & Gallois, 1986), so it may be easier for women to make evaluations of how dominant or affiliative a communication is.

The importance hypotheses were framed to test Tannen's thesis, that men and women communicate from different frameworks and they miscommunicate because they

do not (or cannot) transcend their own framework. Perhaps the most interesting finding in tests of the importance hypotheses, and contrary to what was predicted, men had a tendency to perceive women as more affiliative than women perceived men. Also contrary to what was predicted, women perceived dominance as more descriptive of men's communication than men did of women's communication. Both of these findings came from the test of Hypothesis 2. These results are interesting because, although literature has supported the idea that men communicate dominance and women communicate affiliation, it is not clear how men and women perceive their partner's communication. As mentioned, the prediction that men and women would not be able to transcend their own communicative framework and "accurately" perceive each other's framework was based on implications made by Tannen (1990b). However, no empirical data prior to the current study is known to exist. Provided they are reliable, these findings are potentially very important because they provide new information, and they have implications for future research and psychotherapy. These implications will be discussed in a later section.

Reliability needs to be established with these findings, however, because only one of the two findings was obtained from the hypothesis test (women perceiving men as more dominant). The other effect was found in a

post-hoc exploratory analysis. In addition, these two effects were obtained using different methods (importance questions and extremity scores). This means that, because findings were not always replicated across the two methods, men and women responded to the importance questions differently than they did to the scale items themselves (as evidenced by extremity scores). It is possible that because the scale items are a more naive or objective measure than the importance questions, the importance questions may be more vulnerable to social desirability and/or demand characteristics.

The finding that women perceive men as more dominant is important because it occurred in two different comparisons. Using extremity scores, it was obtained on other-perceptions and on perceptions of men's communication. These findings may mean that the women are feeling one down from the men, and yet the men are not sharing this. This finding, too, has relevance for future research, and implications for psychotherapy.

Another replicated finding was a main effect of dimension favoring affiliation. This finding occurred on extremity scores for all importance hypotheses, as well as on all directional hypotheses and research questions (to be discussed next). The one exception to this finding was the main effect of dimension favoring dominance on the importance questions. However, this dominance finding was not replicated, whereas the

affiliation finding was replicated seven times with extremity scores and again with the qualitative data. The findings favoring affiliation seem to be more reliable than the single finding favoring dominance, especially since the F -values for affiliation were much greater.

The question becomes, then, why is affiliation so strongly favored by this sample? Again, two reasons seem plausible. First, the sample is atypically feminine, which would lead to the prediction of more affiliative responses, based on prior research. Second, there is reason to question differences in the social desirability of the two dimensions, given the relatively drastic differences in endorsement of these dimensions. Although no prior research can provide clues as to whether social desirability is at issue here, future studies in this area would well serve the literature. An explanation for why social desirability may be an issue is discussed in the following section.

Directional Hypotheses

Hypotheses 5 and 6 predicted specific directions for how men and women would score on the dominance dimension. Hypothesis 5 referred to other-perceptions and predicted that women would rate men higher on dominance than men would rate women. Hypothesis 5 was not supported. An unexpected main effect of dimension emerged and indicated

that, in rating their partners, both men and women had higher scores on affiliation than they did on dominance.

Hypothesis 6, which referred to perceptions about women, predicted that men would rate women lower on dominance (higher on submission) than women would rate themselves. Hypothesis 6 was not supported. However, a main effect of dimension also occurred in the same direction as in Hypothesis 5. Namely, both men and women had higher scores on affiliation than they did on dominance.

In both Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 6, predictions for dominance effects were not supported, and main effects for affiliation were found. As in the case of the importance analyses, it seems plausible that the androgyny in the men may be contributing to these findings. This is because the sample as a whole had higher levels of femininity than would be normally expected. This phenomenon might enable men to perceive their partners as affiliative, and it may also be that they themselves are more affiliative, which women accurately perceived. These two things together could contribute to a stronger effect for affiliation relative to dominance because, not only are men behaving more affiliatively, they may be more sensitive to affiliation in their partners as well.

Another possibility is that, as already mentioned, there may be differences in social desirability between

the two dimensions. Both men and women may be less willing to endorse the sort of adjectives that fall under the dominant-submissive dimension (e.g., domineering, forceful) relative to the affiliative dimension (e.g., charitable, kind). This possibility seems particularly likely with an androgynous population of men, men who endorsed socially-desirable female qualities. Unfortunately, Wiggins et al. (1988) do not address the issue of social desirability with regard to the IAS-R.

Research Questions

Research Question One referred to self-perceptions and sought to examine which direction men and women would fall on the affiliation-hostility and dominance-submission continua. The only significant finding was that both men and women were higher on affiliation than dominance. Research Question Two referred to perceptions about men's communication, and again, sought to examine where on the dimension continua the two genders would fall. Like Question One, the only significant finding was that both men and women rated affiliation higher than dominance. These findings are consistent with results from Hypotheses 5 and 6 as well as the Importance findings. Similarly, it seems plausible that these findings are a result of gender-role orientations, differences in social desirability, or perhaps a mixture of the two.

Ancillary Analyses

Regarding relationship satisfaction, all of the couples except three fell within the satisfied range of the DAS. This was an expected finding, because couples were not recruited on the basis of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Generally, if a sample with a larger proportion of dissatisfied couples is needed, then these couples must be recruited specifically. Typically, this is done by recruiting couples who are either seeking therapy or are already in the midst of therapy (e.g., Gottman & Levenson, 1985; Notarius et al., 1989; Sayers & Baucom, 1991; Wills, Weiss, & Patterson, 1974) but not simply from a general population. In addition, Spanier (1976) constructed the DAS using married couples (his norm for satisfaction) and couples who were already divorced (his norm for dissatisfaction). In light of this, it is not surprising that there were not more dissatisfied couples in this sample. In addition, because there were so few couples who were dissatisfied, there was no reason to perform further DAS analyses, because dissatisfaction was obviously not a factor in this study's findings.

Personal Attributes Questionnaire

Results from the PAQ provided important and interesting information with regard to the gender-role make-up of this sample. First of all, men and women were significantly different on masculinity in the expected

direction. Men were above the normative mean, and women were below the normative mean. Based on Spence and Helmreich's (1978) research, this is typical. However, men and women were not significantly different on femininity. While women were above the normative mean, men were also above the normative mean, and they were even above the normative mean for women. This suggests that for this sample, the typical woman is feminine, and the typical man is androgynous. As indicated in the discussion of the hypotheses, this finding is very relevant to the surprisingly large number of findings favoring affiliation.

A remaining question, then, is why is this sample different from other college samples? The sample was composed of undergraduates, about half of whom were taking an introductory course and about half of whom were taking an advanced level psychology course. However, differences in age or level cannot account for the discrepant gender-role orientation in the men, because such a large proportion of the men were androgynous. In addition, the make-up of this sample regarding age and level is fairly typical for a college population. The one factor that may account for such a discrepancy in gender-role is that these men (or women) were selected based on the fact that they were in a relatively long-term, exclusive relationship. Although it was not difficult to obtain participants who fit this criterion,

this is not a typical college student sample. Specifically, the men in this sample were, on the average, 21 years-old, and they had been in an exclusive relationship since they were 19 or 20. When one imagines the typical 21 year-old man, this is not the image that comes to mind. It is possible that men who are androgynous have in common the ability to engage in a long-term relationship at relatively young ages. This suggestion is consistent with findings linking femininity with marital satisfaction (Bradbury & Fincham, 1988; Sayers & Baucom, 1991) and intimacy maturity (White et al., 1986). The reverse causality could also be true. Perhaps as a result of being in a long-term relationship, these young men have become more androgynous. The former conclusion seems the more likely of the two possibilities, because androgyny is considered a relatively stable personality trait, not a less stable state or attitude (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Regarding women, if the fact that a long-term relationship is the factor influencing the gender-role make-up of this sample, it is not surprising that women are appropriately classified as feminine. This is because it is the feminine qualities such as understanding, empathy, and devotion of self to others, that one typically associates with the ability to sustain a relationship, particularly when young.

Construct Elicitation Measure

Because the Construct Elicitation Measure was an exploratory analysis, no hypotheses were formulated. However, the analysis of this data yielded a few findings that are noteworthy, because they were consistent with the quantitative data. First, the Gender X Dimension X IPR interaction was nonsignificant. If reliable, this finding is important because it addresses Question Two from Chapter 1, which asks: Using their own constructs, do men and women have different perceptions about an interaction that has taken place between them? The results from this study indicate that they do not, or else a significant three-way interaction would have emerged. However, because of the relatively low inter-rater reliability obtained for this study, the possibility of missing a true effect is higher than it would be otherwise. Nevertheless, findings from the quantitative data, namely the main effects of affiliation coupled with participants' perceptions of women's communication indicate that men and women agree that women are affiliative. However, quantitative results also indicated that men and women perceive men's communication differently. Future research on men's and women's own constructs could address whether the finding that men and women have similar perceptions about their interaction is reliable.

The second important finding was that a significant Gender X Dimension interaction emerged. Much of what drove this interaction was a powerful effect of affiliation relative to the other dimensions, for both men and women. If this sounds like a main effect, that is because the main effect of dimension was also significant. For both genders, intentions, perceptions, and reactions were most often affiliative, followed by aloof-gregarious, then dominance, and lastly, arrogant-unassuming. A post-hoc analysis determined that each paired comparison of means for the main effect was significantly different. The reliability of this finding is supported by the powerful and consistent main effect for affiliation also found for the quantitative (IAS-R) data. Whether due to androgyny, social desirability, and/or some other explanation, affiliation clearly seems to be the preferred mode of communication for this sample. In addition to supporting the quantitative findings, this effect also addresses Question One from Chapter 1. This question asked: Using their own constructs, how do men and women perceive a communication process that has taken place between them? For this sample of highly feminine men and women at least, the second most commonly perceived dimension was aloof-gregarious, followed by dominance, and then arrogant-unassuming. It is not clear why aloof-gregarious was higher than dominance. As mentioned in the literature,

the dominance construct may be contaminated with other interpersonal constructs such as independence and even withdrawal. The aloof-gregarious construct is primarily introversion-extroversion, and withdrawal is certainly a part of this. The adjectives friendly, neighborly, and cheerful, are also elements of the aloof-gregarious dimension, and these adjectives are not unlike affiliation. From this single finding, it is difficult to tell whether aloof-gregarious is more important than dominance in its own right, or if it really contains elements of both dominance and affiliation. Future research may need to tease out the different elements of dominance and additionally, examine how introversion-extroversion contributes to affiliative and dominant communication.

Regarding the effects of gender on dimension (simple effects), the three significant findings represented the affiliation and aloof-gregarious dimensions. Specifically, women had more affiliative intentions than did men, women perceived more aloof-gregarious messages from their partners than did men, and women had more aloof-gregarious reactions than did men. Although women were expected to be higher than men on affiliation for the quantitative data, these hypotheses were largely unsupported. For this reason, the reliability of this finding is called into question. However, one possibility is that the rating source

differed between the quantitative and qualitative data. Specifically, when men and women rated their own communication using the IAS-R, the predominant finding was that both men and women perceived affiliation. However, the qualitative data were analyzed by trained raters. It is possible that the women's communication-intentions were even more affiliative than they gave themselves credit for, and perhaps the men were not communicating as much affiliation as they thought they were. This latter possibility, that men perceive more affiliation in themselves than is accurate, is supported by the quantitative data, which found that women do not perceive men as being as affiliative as they themselves do.

Limitations

The major limitations of this study are discussed using Cook and Campbell's (1979) threats to validity. Regarding statistical conclusion validity, one problem with the Construct Elicitation Measure is the relatively low reliability that was obtained for this instrument (Spearman-Brown \underline{r} = .72). Obtaining only modest reliability on this measure was not surprising given that this was an exploratory part of the study, and therefore, there was no methodological guidance from prior research. This is still a problem however, because it is possible that low reliability precluded finding more effects because of decreased statistical power. Ideally,

participants themselves would have rated the elicited constructs, thereby providing the researcher with the most "accurate" analysis of the constructs, phenomenologically speaking. Unfortunately, practical constraints on the experimental time for each couple precluded this as a possibility.

Regarding construct validity, several possibilities in this area may limit the degree to which causal attributions can be made. Potential differences in social desirability for the two scales has already been discussed, and this problem presents a threat to construct validity. Specifically, if the two scales are not equal in terms of their social desirability, this may affect people's willingness to endorse one or the other dimension. Another potential problem concerns hypothesis guessing. Although participants were told that the study was concerned with intimate relationships, some participants may have guessed that the study was really about gender differences. This might have been particularly true by the time they reached the PAQ. However, the PAQ was the last instrument in the packet, and great care was taken throughout the experiment to conceal the study's true nature. However, if hypothesis-guessing occurred, results may have been either obscured or exaggerated, depending upon how participants reacted to their hunches.

A related problem for construct validity is experimenter expectations. For necessity's sake, all three people facilitating the experiment knew the hypotheses, and they were also all women. Great care was taken to see that administration was standardized and not contaminated in any way that might lead participants to respond one way or the other. However, with future studies, it might be helpful to have both male and female facilitators to ensure that there are no differences based on the gender of the experimenter. Experimenter expectancies would generally serve to exaggerate already existing findings, or at worst, lead to findings that under other conditions, would not exist.

Another potential problem in this study is evaluation apprehension. Prior to implementation of this study, a concern was voiced that participants would not adequately be able to concentrate on the viewing of their interaction, because they would be concerned with seeing themselves on videotape. It was suggested that the videotape be replayed back to participants so they could overcome any initial apprehension. This was not done for two reasons. First, methodological convention in using Interpersonal Process Recall is that the tape is only played once for participants, and that this is sufficient for enabling participants to relive their interaction (see Gottman & Levenson, 1985). The second reason replay was not done was because of a practical constraint,

again, there was not enough experiment time for participants to review the videotape a second time. Although directions were given to teach them how to focus on the communication (as opposed to how they look or sound), a few women in the study appeared at first uncomfortable about watching themselves on videotape. People who were bothered by apprehension may not have been able to make an accurate assessment of how they or their partners were communicating. This concern can be addressed with certain modifications. The methodology for this will be discussed in an upcoming section.

Finally, the last potential threat to construct validity that the author is aware of is restricted generalizability of constructs. The only interaction that participants judged themselves on was a conflictual interaction. This means that the results may have been different had they evaluated themselves on another type of interaction, or if they had all been given one particular topic. Although this is a limitation, a conflictual interaction was chosen for two important reasons. First, many marital-communication theorists believe conflict to be one of the most important types of interaction because conflictual communication is generally more intense, and also very common in significant relationships. Perhaps even more importantly, conflictual interactions may have the greatest applicability to psychotherapy, because it is

almost always conflict that brings couples into therapy in the first place.

The last potential threats to be considered are to external validity, which concerns the extent to which findings in this study can be generalized to other populations or settings. There are two limitations to this study regarding generalizability. The first limitation is that the study was conducted on young college students who, for the most part, were not married or living together. It would be interesting to see whether the results in this study could be replicated on a sample of older adults who are married or living together.

There is a second area in which the generalizability of this study may be limited. The participants for this study were satisfied couples, not distressed couples seeking therapy. Although research on gender differences has merit as basic research, the importance of this research seems greatly enhanced if it has applications to psychotherapy. As mentioned earlier in this manuscript, very little research of this nature on gender differences has been conducted thus far, so it seemed appropriate and practical to first study satisfied couples to see if any differences exist in this population. Nevertheless, future research can take these questions more specifically into the realm of distressed couples and psychotherapy.

Recommendations for Research

Any research that does not have a long legacy of well-established findings is, by nature, exploratory. The current study was no exception, and the paucity of prior research made it methodologically challenging as well. This section articulates ideas for methodological improvement, as well as new avenues in which to take this research.

Having the couples return for a second 60-75 minutes would have enabled the experimenter to incorporate several methodological improvements. The first of these improvements regards the methodology for the Interpersonal Process Recall procedure. Rather than having participants rate an entire segment for a common theme or feeling, it is recommended that a "critical events" procedure be followed (see Elliott & Shapiro, 1988; Gaelick et al., 1986). Briefly, this is done by having participants identify several of their own, most important segments during the videotape, and then these segments are reviewed and evaluated. Using this procedure would help participants overcome any initial apprehension, because they could first become accustomed to viewing themselves while identifying the events, prior to making their evaluation. Using this method would improve construct validity further by allowing participants to focus on only that communication which seemed most important, rather than having the most

meaningful events be diluted by relatively long segments of less meaningful discussion.

Second, it is recommended that participants rate their own elicited constructs on the dimensions in question. Because participants' constructs had to be discerned from just a few words, this was a very difficult and subjective task for the trained raters. In contrast, participants' own ratings provide a truer assessment of the conveyed construct. In addition, fewer trained raters are needed as a result.

A third recommendation for future studies is to have independent observers rate the couple's communication in addition to having the couples evaluate it themselves (see also Notarius et al., 1989). This would be helpful for two reasons. First, it would be interesting to see if there was any correspondence between raters trained in detecting differences in affiliation and dominance, and the participants' own perceptions. Second, although it is believed that for applications to psychotherapy, participants' own perceptions are most important, some of the participants in this study had difficulty with the task, particularly with regard to the elicited constructs. It would be interesting to know if the findings in this study were somehow limited by participants' ability to make process-oriented comments about their interaction.

More research that directly looks at couples' perceptions of affiliation and dominance needs to be done to determine the reliability and generalizability of these findings. It is recommended that this be done using both standardized scales and the couples' own constructs. Some of the findings in this study emerged across several analyses and measures, for example, the finding that both men and women perceived more affiliation than dominance. However, other findings from this study, for example, effects examining other-perceptions, are not known to have been directly tested using couples. One example of this was the finding that men and women seem to transcend their own communication styles and perceive differences in their partners. This finding needs to be replicated before reliability can be assumed.

Regarding generalizability, this research also needs to be conducted on samples of couples who are living together or married, because most of these couples have greater commitment in their relationships and would be more likely to seek psychotherapy. Finally, research of this nature also needs to be conducted with distressed couples. Although much research has been done on relationship dissatisfaction, little of this research has examined gender differences, and even fewer studies have explored dominance and affiliation specifically.

Implications for Psychotherapy

A growing number of scientist-practitioners, specifically, feminist family therapists, are reconceptualizing the family and family therapy (e.g., Carter, Papp, Silverstein, & Walters, 1986; Goldner, Penn, Scheinberg, & Walker, 1990; Goodrich, Rampage, Ellman, & Halstead, 1985; Hare-Mustin, 1978, 1987, 1988; Hare-Mustin & Maracek, 1986). Prior to this, many family therapists (e.g., Bowen, 1978; Minuchin, 1974; Minuchin & Fishman, 1981) have conceptualized family members as either enmeshed (typically women) or disengaged (typically men). This earlier family systems model depicts each family member as doing his/her part to create a common meaning for the family and a common mode in which to function. This model fails to incorporate societal differences in status between men and women. In addition, enmeshment and disengagement may not necessarily reflect dysfunction, but instead, very different styles of communication. The feminist family therapists take into account both phenomena.

In the present study, couples were neither dissatisfied with their relationship, nor were they typical in their gender-role orientation. Thus, the implications of current findings for therapy are necessarily constrained. However, two findings might bear on couples/family therapy and its reconceptualization. Women perceived men as more

dominant than men perceived themselves or their partners. This suggests that women may often feel one-down, and yet men may not be aware of this. It is important for therapists to recognize that women in this society are often in a one-down position vis-a-vis men. Therapists need to assess women's feelings of being one-down in the relationship and validate these feelings if present. At this point, therapists can then begin to work toward a more egalitarian relationship.

Although the predominant finding in this study favored affiliation, a few findings supported the notion that males and females, do indeed, communicate from different frameworks. This suggests that couples/family therapists should be aware that such different communication styles, if present, may contribute to relationship distress. This may be even more true with distressed couples, because White's (1989) research suggested that communication differences were exacerbated with marital distress. It is recommended that therapists seriously consider the ideas of the feminist family therapists by recognizing that there may be fundamental differences in communication style between men and women. Rather than being viewed as dysfunctional, the client can be empowered by learning that their own style may be a very viable framework. This is not to say that affiliation and dominance are never dysfunctional, but rather, that people can communicate from these frameworks

in a healthy manner. Teaching couples how to do this is very different from labeling them pathological and insisting they communicate from a completely different framework than the one they are accustomed to. Helping couples to become aware of and embrace possible differences in each other is a much more humanistic, and arguably effective, method for conducting psychotherapy.

Conclusion

The current study is significant in three important ways. First, it served an exploratory purpose by using the couples' own constructs to understand how they perceived their own interactions. Second, this study examined not only how men and women perceived their own communication, but how they perceived that of their partners. Finally, this study sought to replicate previous findings that men perceive their communication from a dominant framework, and women perceive their communication from an affiliative framework.

Regarding the exploratory part of this study, using their own constructs, the predominant dimension from which couples perceived their communication was affiliation. This was evidenced by a large main effect of dimension, which importantly, was the most predominant finding in the quantitative data using the IAS-R. Although this finding was unexpected, it is presumed to be the result of the gender-role orientation of the sample which was uncharacteristically feminine. Support

for this presumption comes from Leaper (1987) and Sayers and Baucom (1991), both of whom found higher levels of femininity to be associated with higher levels of affiliation. It is certainly possible, however, that this finding is a result of some other factor, such as social desirability. Unfortunately, prior research has provided little additional information on this or other possibilities. The three-way interaction was nonsignificant for the qualitative data, indicating that men and women did not perceive their communication differently. A note of caution is added to this interpretation, however, because the inter-rater reliability for this data was relatively low. Future research using couples' own constructs is recommended to determine the reliability of these findings.

Another way in which this study was unique is that it examined couples' other-perceptions in addition to their self-perceptions. Results suggested that men perceived women as more affiliative than women perceived men, and women perceived men as more dominant than men perceived women. These findings are potentially important because they were counter to predictions which were based on implications from Tannen's (1990b) book on gender communication. These two findings suggest that, if men and women are communicating from different frameworks, they are able to transcend their own frameworks and perceive a different "voice" emanating

from their partner. Because no other studies of this nature examining other-perceptions were uncovered, it is recommended that future studies examine other-perceptions of affiliation and dominance with couples.

The other important aspect of other-perceptions is the finding that women perceive men as more dominant than men perceive themselves or their partners. Although research on other-perceptions for couples is lacking, other studies using strangers have found that men are perceived by both genders as more dominant than women (e.g., Barnes & Buss, 1985; Leet-Pellegrini, 1979; Sullaway & Christensen, 1983).

Lastly, this study sought to replicate research that has found gender differences in communication on dominant and affiliative dimensions. Perhaps because the sample was uncharacteristically feminine in gender-role, with the few exceptions noted above, this phenomenon was largely unsupported, as evidenced by the surprisingly large effect of affiliation. This effect indicated that both men and women communicated from the same, as opposed to different, frameworks. Although this finding does not necessarily deny a different-framework theory, as Leaper (1987) and others have noted, future studies on gender may also need to incorporate gender-role data to get a more complete picture of men's and women's communication perceptions.

APPENDIX A
PRESCREENING QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Are you currently in an exclusive, intimate relationship of 6 months duration or longer?
2. If you are in a relationship, would your partner agree that you two are a "couple" and that it is an exclusive relationship?
3. If you and your partner agree to being in an exclusive relationship, would your partner consent to participating with you in a 60-minute experiment if you were both provided with feedback about the relationship (if desired)?
4. If you are in a relationship, are you married or cohabitating?
5. Please indicate your age:
 - a) 17-19
 - b) 20-22
 - c) 23-25
 - d) 26 or older

APPENDIX B
INFORMED CONSENT

The primary investigator of this study is Ruth Ann Herman, a doctoral student in Counseling Psychology. This study is for the purpose of learning more about how two people interact in intimate relationships. The study requires that participants fill out a brief questionnaire, engage in a nonthreatening videotaped interaction, watch the videotaped interaction with me or my assistant, and then answer questions about that interaction. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. The only people that will have access to videotapes are the primary investigator, and her supervisor, Martin Heesacker, Ph.D. There will be only one researcher present for data collection (either the primary investigator or her research assistant) and all information disclosed by participants will remain confidential. The only participant identification used on questionnaires will be the participant's subject number. At the conclusion of data collection, tapes will be erased. Because special care is taken that this interaction not be threatening, no potential risks to the participant are expected. A potential benefit is that participants will learn more about how they interact with their partner. Although monetary compensation will not be given, interested participants can be provided with feedback based on their responses at the conclusion of data collection. In addition, participants may ask any questions that arise either during or after the study. For questions that arise after conclusion of the study, contact Ruth Ann Herman, Department of Psychology, 114 Psychology Building, 373-1644. Participants are free to withdraw his/her consent and to discontinue participation in the project or activity at any time without prejudice.

I have read and I understand the procedure described above. I agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description.

Signed _____
Date _____

PI or Assistant _____

APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHICS AND RELATIONSHIP SCALE

PART ONE: Demographics

1. Gender: 0=female 1=male
2. Age: 0=18 or younger, 1=19, 2=20, 3=21, 4=22,
5=23, 6=24, 7=25 or older
3. Ethnicity: 0=white/caucasian 1=Black/African American
2=Native American 3=Hispanic 4=Asian/South Pacific
Islander 5=Other
4. Is your class level: 0=Freshman 1=Sophomore
2=Junior 3=Senior 4=Post-bac 5=Grad student 6=Not a
student
5. How long have you been in this relationship? 0=6 - 9
months 1=9 months - 1 year 2=1 - 1 1/2 years 3=1 1/2
- 2 years 4=2 - 3 years 5=more than 3 years
6. Are you: 0=not married, not living together 1=not
married, living together 2=married, living together
3=married, not living together

PART TWO: Your relationship

Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Using the scale below, please indicate the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for items 7-21.

Always <u>Agree</u>	Almost Always <u>Agree</u>	Occasionally <u>Disagree</u>	Frequently <u>Disagree</u>	Almost Always <u>Disagree</u>	Always <u>Disagree</u>
5	4	3	2	1	0

7. Handling finances or who pays for things
8. Matters of recreation
9. Religious matters
10. Demonstration of affection
11. Friends
12. Sex relations
13. Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)
14. Philosophy of life
15. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws
16. Aims, goals, and things believed important
17. Amount of time spent together
18. Making major decisions
19. Household tasks
20. Leisure time interests and activities
21. Career decisions

Now answer questions 22-28 using the following scale:

<u>All the time</u>	<u>Most of the time</u>	<u>More often than not</u>	<u>Occasion- ally</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
0	1	2	3	4	5

22. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?
23. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?
24. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?
25. Do you confide in your mate?
26. Do you ever regret that you got involved in this relationship?
27. How often do you and your partner quarrel?
28. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?"
29. Do you kiss your mate? 0=Never 1=Rarely 2=Occasionally
3=Almost every day 4=Every day
30. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?
0=None 1=Very few of them 2=Some of them 3=Most of them
4=All of them

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

<u>Never</u>	<u>Less than once a month</u>	<u>Once or twice a month</u>	<u>Once or twice a week</u>	<u>Once a day</u>	<u>More often</u>
0	1	2	3	4	5

31. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas
32. Laugh together
33. Calmly discuss something
34. Work together on a project

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometimes disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks.

35. Being too tired for sex or affection. 0=yes 1=no

36. Not showing love. 0=yes 1=no

37. The following numbers represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. "Happy" (3), represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please pick the number which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

0=Extremely unhappy 1=Fairly unhappy 2=A little unhappy
3=Happy 4=Very happy 5=Extremely happy 6=Perfect

38. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

- 0=My relationship can never succeed, and there is *no more* that I can do to keep the relationship going.
- 1=It would be nice if it succeeded, but I *refuse* to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- 2=It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I *can't* do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
- 3=I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will* do my fair share to see that it does.
- 4=I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and *will* do all I can to see that it does.
- 5=I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and *would* go to almost any length to see that it does.

PLEASE DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL ASKED TO DO SO

APPENDIX D

TEN POTENTIAL RELATIONSHIP CONFLICTS

Conflict is a natural part of intimate relationships. For the next interaction, with your partner, take a minute or two and choose an area that you do not see eye to eye on and are both willing to discuss. Ideally, this topic should bring up an old or ongoing conflict between you two. You do not necessarily need to recreate a previous conflict that you two have had, but the goal is to interact as you normally would when this conflict occurs between you. Choosing your topic will be the first part of this next interaction. Once you have chosen a topic, just begin talking about it, until I knock on the door, signalling you to stop. Some situations may not apply. If there is an area of conflict that is not represented here that you both are willing to discuss, feel free to do so. Do not pick any area you feel is too threatening to talk about. You may begin as soon as I leave the room.

1. Pressures or problems at work or school that have affected your relationship.
2. Criticism of one another's life-style, beliefs, ideas, or activities.
3. Taking care of household responsibilities, such as cleaning, yardwork, home repairs, shopping and so forth.
4. Lack of affection or attention paid by one or both of you to the other person.
5. Disagreements about spending money.
6. One or both of you have been irritable, depressed, bossy or otherwise hard to get along with.
7. Disagreements about how to spend your leisure time, such as what to do on weekends or vacations, what television programs or movies to watch, what parties to attend, and so on.
8. Lack of communication between the two of you.
9. Disagreements about how to discipline or raise the children.
10. One of you feels that the two of you do not do enough things together.

APPENDIX E
INTERPERSONAL PROCESS RECALL FORM

Think back to the 2.5 minute period of your interaction that you just reviewed. In a word or two, a short phrase, or a sentence, please answer the following questions about the interaction using both verbal and nonverbal cues. Your answers can reflect emotion(s), thought(s), or theme(s). Also, for each description, write one word that for you, is the opposite of your description. There are no right or wrong answers.

Example 1: Intention of your communication (what you meant to communicate, including emotions, thoughts, or themes):

Cheerfulness

Opposite: Down

Example 2: Perceptions of your partner's communication (the message you were getting from your partner, including emotions, thoughts, or themes):

Not wanting to agree; argumentative

Opposite: Compliant

1. Intention of your communication (what you meant to communicate, including emotions, thoughts, or themes):

Opposite _____

2. Perceptions of your partner's communication (the message you were getting from your partner, including emotions, thoughts, or themes):

Opposite _____

3. Reactions you had to your partner (emotions, thoughts, and/or themes):

Opposite _____

PLEASE DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL ASKED TO DO SO

APPENDIX F
INTERPERSONAL ADJECTIVES AND IMPORTANCE QUESTIONS

PART ONE: Self-perceptions

Think back to the entire interaction you just had with your partner. This questionnaire will assess your self-perceptions of your communication. The purpose is not to assess your partner; assess only your own communication. Now, using the following scale, for each adjective, please rate how accurately they describe your own communication.

Example 1:

How accurate are the adjectives below in describing the intent of your communication?

Extremely inaccurate 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely accurate

1. Cheerful

"0" means you were not at all intending to be cheerful; "7" means you were extremely intent on communicating cheerfulness; a "3" or "4" means you were relatively neutral but leaning slightly one way or the other regarding cheerfulness. Remember, please rate your own intentions without regard to your partner's communication.

How accurate are the adjectives below in describing the intent of your communication?

Extremely inaccurate 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely accurate

39. Self-assured

47. Timid

40. Self-confident

48. Bashful

41. Assertive

49. Shy

42. Persistent

50. Meek

43. Firm

51. Forceless

44. Dominant

52. Unauthoritative

45. Forceful

53. Unbold

46. Domineering

54. Unaggressive

55. How strong are your feelings about the adjectives represented in questions 39-54 regarding your own communication?
Extremely strong 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all strong
56. How important to you are your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 39-54 regarding your own communication?
Extremely important 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all important
57. How much do you care about your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 39-54 regarding your own communication?
Care very much 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Care not at all
58. How much do you value the adjectives in questions 39-54 in expressing your views about your communication?
Value extremely 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Value not at all
- For questions 59-74, how accurate are the adjectives below in describing the intent of your communication?

Extremely inaccurate 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely accurate

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 59. Accommodating | 67. Ruthless |
| 60. Gentlehearted | 68. Ironhearted |
| 61. Tenderhearted | 69. Hardhearted |
| 62. Charitable | 70. Uncharitable |
| 63. Tender | 71. Coldhearted |
| 64. Sympathetic | 72. Cruel |
| 65. Kind | 73. Unsympathetic |
| 66. Softhearted | 74. Warmthless |
75. How strong are your feelings about the adjectives represented in questions 59-74 regarding your own communication?
Extremely strong 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all strong
76. How important to you are your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 59-74 regarding your own communication?
Extremely important 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all important

77. How much do you care about your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 59-74 regarding your own communication?
Care very much 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Care not at all
78. How much do you value the adjectives in questions 59-74 in expressing your views about your communication?
Value extremely 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Value not at all

PART TWO: Other-perceptions

Again, think back to the entire interaction you just had with your partner. Part 2 of this questionnaire assesses your perceptions of what your partner was communicating.

Using the following scale, for each adjective, please rate the descriptiveness of your perceptions of your partner's communication regarding the interaction that just took place.

How accurate are the adjectives below in describing my partner's communication?

Extremely inaccurate 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely accurate

79. Self-assured

87. Timid

80. Self-confident

88. Bashful

81. Assertive

89. Shy

82. Persistent

90. Meek

83. Firm

91. Forceless

84. Dominant

92. Unauthoritative

85. Forceful

93. Unbold

86. Domineering

94. Unaggressive

95. How strong are your feelings about the adjectives represented in questions 79-94 regarding your partner's communication?

Extremely strong 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all strong

96. How important to you are your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 79-94 regarding your partner's communication?

Extremely important 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all important

97. How much do you care about your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 79-94 regarding your partner's communication?

Care very much 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Care not at all

98. How much do you value the adjectives in questions 79-94 in expressing your views about your partner's communication?

Value very much 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Value not at all

For questions 99-114, how accurate are the adjectives below in describing your partner's communication?

Extremely inaccurate 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Extremely accurate

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| 99. Accommodating | 107. Ruthless |
| 100. Gentlehearted | 108. Ironhearted |
| 101. Tenderhearted | 109. Hardhearted |
| 102. Charitable | 110. Uncharitable |
| 103. Tender | 111. Coldhearted |
| 104. Sympathetic | 112. Cruel |
| 105. Kind | 113. Unsympathetic |
| 106. Softhearted | 114. Warmthless |
115. How strong are your feelings about the adjectives represented in questions 99-114 regarding your partner's communication?
Extremely strong 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all strong
116. How important to you are your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 99-114 regarding your partner's communication?
Extremely important 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Not at all important
117. How much do you care about your views expressed by the adjectives in questions 99-114 regarding your partner's communication?
Care very much 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Care not at all
118. How much do you value the adjectives in questions 99-114 in expressing your views about your partner's communication?
Value very much 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Value not at all

APPENDIX G
PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES QUESTIONNAIRE

The items below inquire about what kind of a person you think you are. Each item consists of a pair of characteristics with the numbers 0-4 in between. For example:

Not at all Artistic 0 1 2 3 4 Very Artistic

Each pair describes contradictory characteristics--that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not at all artistic. The numbers form a scale between the two extremes. You are to choose a letter which describes where you fall on the scale. For example, if you think you have no artistic ability, you would choose 0. If you think you are pretty good, you might choose 4. If you are only medium, you might choose 2, and so forth.

- | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 119. Not at all aggressive | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very aggressive |
| | | | | | | |
| 120. Not at all independent | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very independent |
| | | | | | | |
| 121. Not at all emotional | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very emotional |
| | | | | | | |
| 122. Very submissive | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very dominant |
| | | | | | | |
| 123. Not at all excitable
in a major crisis | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very excitable in
a major crisis |
| | | | | | | |
| 124. Very passive | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very active |
| | | | | | | |
| 125. Not at all able to devote
self completely to others | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Able to devote self
completely to others |
| | | | | | | |
| 126. Very rough | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very gentle |
| | | | | | | |
| 127. Not at all helpful to others | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Very helpful to others |
| | | | | | | |

128. Not at all competitive	0	1	2	3	4	Very competitive
129. Very home oriented	0	1	2	3	4	Very worldly
130. Not at all kind	0	1	2	3	4	Very kind
131. Indifferent to others' approval	0	1	2	3	4	Highly needful of others' approval
132. Feelings not easily hurt	0	1	2	3	4	Feelings easily hurt
133. Not at all aware of feelings of others	0	1	2	3	4	Very aware of feelings of others
134. Can make decisions easily	0	1	2	3	4	Has difficulty making decisions
135. Gives up very easily	0	1	2	3	4	Never gives up easily
136. Never cries	0	1	2	3	4	Cries very easily
137. Not at all self-confident	0	1	2	3	4	Very self-confident
138. Feels very inferior	0	1	2	3	4	Feels very superior
139. Not at all understanding of others	0	1	2	3	4	Very understanding of others
140. Very cold in relations with others	0	1	2	3	4	Very warm in relations with others
141. Very little need for security	0	1	2	3	4	Very strong need for security
142. Goes to pieces under pressure	0	1	2	3	4	Stands up well under pressure

APPENDIX H DEBRIEFING

Thank you for participating in this study. The purpose of this study was to explore gender differences in communication between two people in an intimate relationship. The hypotheses are that, because females are typically socialized to be cooperative and affiliative, and males are typically socialized to be competitive and autonomous, males and females grow up communicating from very different world views. Specifically, it is hypothesized that females will perceive communication from an emotional or affiliative perspective, and males will perceive communication from an autonomous or status-conscious perspective. Consequently, as men and women enter intimate relationships as adults, this differential socialization affects their ability to communicate to their partners in a way that can be understood.

The questions you answered after viewing the videotape were designed to assess differences between you and your partner about the way you perceive your communication process. You also answered questions regarding the satisfaction you feel in your relationship and the extent to which you endorse masculine and feminine gender roles. Although I did not make any hypotheses about relationship satisfaction, I included this measure to see if gender differences in some couples can be partially accounted for by relationship satisfaction. The gender-role measure was included to see if weak (or nonexistent) gender effects would be stronger if a person is more strongly identified as traditionally masculine or feminine. There was no deception involved in this study. The videotape will not be used for analysis in this study, it was used only to enable you to view your interaction with your partner and it will be erased after the session. If you have any further questions about this study, or if you and your partner would like feedback regarding your responses to the study, please contact Ruth Ann Herman, 114 Psychology, 373-1644.

APPENDIX I CONSTRUCTS FOR RATING

ASSURED-DOMINANT/UNASSURED-SUBMISSIVE

Self-assured	Timid
Self-confident	Bashful
Assertive	Shy
Persistent	Meek
Firm	Forceless
Dominant	Unauthoritative
Forceful	Unbold
Domineering	Unaggressive

ARROGANT-CALCULATING/UNASSUMING INGENUOUS

Cocky	Unargumentative
Crafty	Undemanding
Cunning	Uncalculating
Boastful	Uncrafty
Wily	Boastless
Calculating	Unwily
Tricky	Uncunning
Sly	Unsly

COLD-HEARTED/WARM-AGREEABLE

Ruthless	Softhearted
Ironhearted	Accommodating
Hardhearted	Gentlehearted
Uncharitable	Tenderhearted
Coldhearted	Charitable
Cruel	Tender
Unsympathetic	Sympathetic
Warmthless	Kind

ALOOF-INTROVERTED/GREGARIOUS-EXTROVERTED

Uncheery	Cheerful
Unneighborly	Friendly
Distant	Neighborly
Dissocial	Jovial
Unsociable	Perky
Antisocial	Enthusiastic
Unsparkling	Outgoing
Introverted	Extraverted

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Ruth Ann Herman was born in Salem, Oregon, in 1963. Her father retired as Deputy Assistant Attorney General for the State of Oregon several years ago and is currently practicing as a masters-level counselor. Her mother has owned a clothing and imported goods business for the last 15 years. Ruth graduated from public high school in Salem, Oregon, in 1981.

Ruth studied psychology at Oregon State University from 1981 until 1984. While at Oregon State, she competed for the Oregon State gymnastics team, which was among the top 10 teams nationwide each year Ruth was there. In 1985, Ruth transferred to the University of California, Santa Barbara, where in 1987, she graduated Phi Beta Kappa with a Bachelor of Arts in psychology.

In 1988, Ruth began her doctoral program in counseling psychology at The Ohio State University, receiving her masters in 1990. She then transferred to the University of Florida to continue working with her chairperson, Martin Heesacker. In August 1992, she will begin her clinical internship, which she will complete in August 1993, at the Seattle Veterans Affairs Medical Center.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.



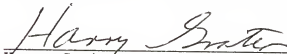
Martin Heesacker, Chair
Associate Professor of Psychology

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Franz Epting
Professor of Psychology

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Harry Grater
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This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the Department of Psychology in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

August, 1993

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